

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW of REVIEWS

Edited by ALBERT SHAW

June
1904

The Coming Presidential Contest

Dr. Albert Shaw, in "The Progress of the World." Illustrated

Roosevelt's "Running Mate"—The Illinois Convention—Republican Harmony in Ohio and Iowa—A Split in Wisconsin—Mr. Cortelyou and the Campaign—The Situation with the Democrats—Mr. Olney and Judge Parker

The Russo-Japanese War

- I. The Cossack : Russia's Unique Troopers. By Joseph A. Baer. With Illustrations
- II. The Month's Fighting on Sea and Land. In "The Progress of the World." With Pictures
- III. Conditions in Japan and Russia. Eight "Leading Articles." With Illustrations

The Turbine: A New Era of Steam

By Arthur Warren. With Illustrations

The Automobile in Business

By J. A. Kingman. With Illustrations

The Jubilee of Wisconsin University

By W. B. Shaw. Illustrated

Sending a Son to College

By Charles F. Thwing, LL.D.

The Work of a Modern Public Library

By H. L. Elmendorf. Illustrated

Stanley and African Exploration

Maurus Jokai, Hungarian Patriot and Writer By A. Hegedüs, Jr.

Two Experiments in Taxing Franchises

I. The Special Franchise Tax in New York
By E. R. A. Seligman

II. The Taxation of Bank Franchises
By Carl C. Plehn

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HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN.

(Who has the full confidence and support of his people in the war with Russia and has proven
* himself one of the wisest and most progressive of modern rulers.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXIX.

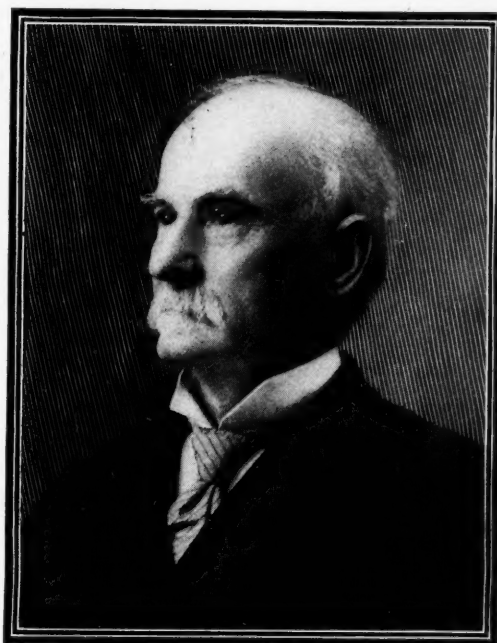
NEW YORK, JUNE, 1904.

No. 6.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

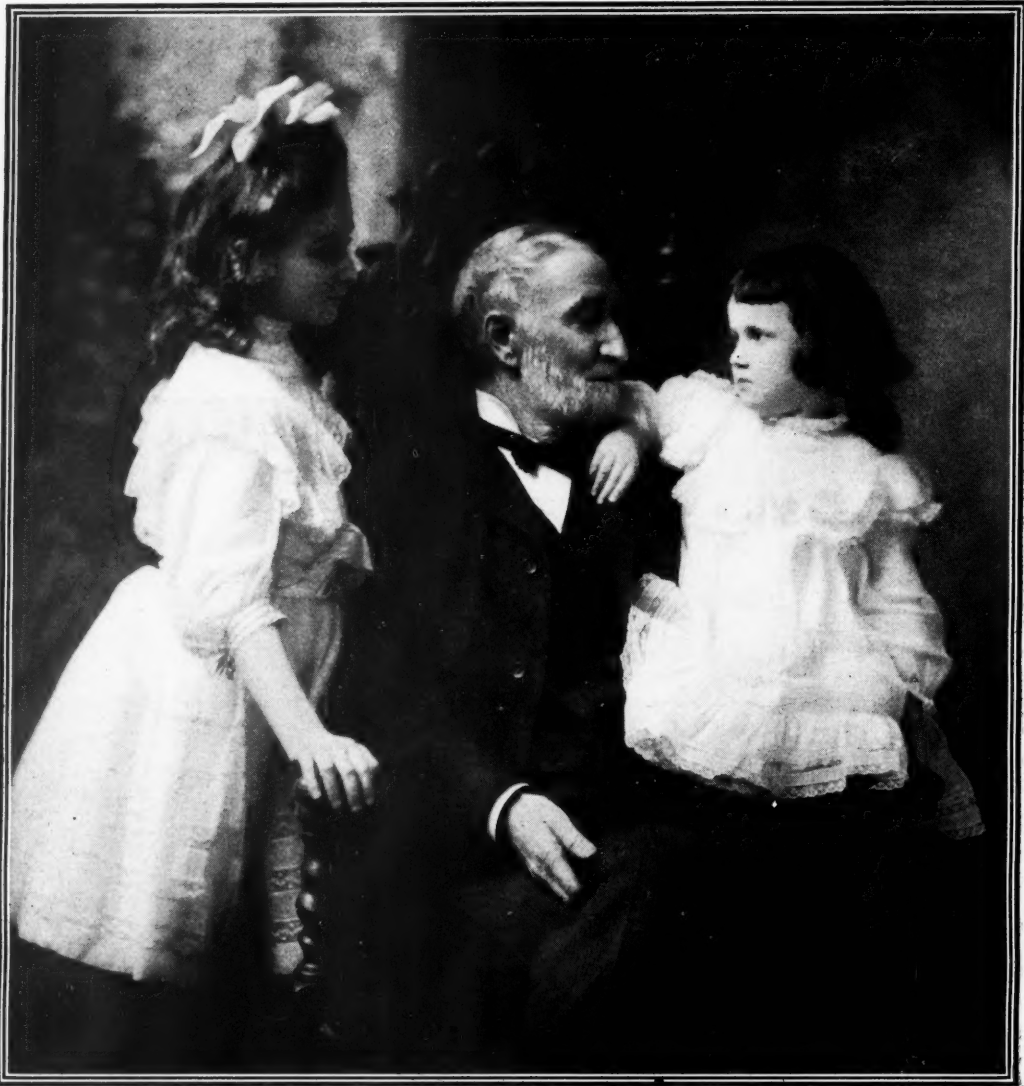
The Approaching Presidential Contest. The month of May witnessed political activity in various States and localities, but did not contribute much material for the 1904 chapter that must in due time be added to the history of American Presidential contests. Republican harmony—on the larger stage—remained unbroken, and the adjustment of details by general agreement seemed to indicate a convention at Chicago that would have nothing to do but ratify decisions already made and listen to speeches of eulogy and congratulation. Early in the month, Speaker Cannon was so much talked about as a desirable candidate for the Vice-Presidency that he resorted to the defensive expedient of declaring that he would not accept a nomination under any conditions whatsoever. If the Republicans have a majority in the next Congress, Mr. Cannon will be reelected as Speaker; and he is entirely justified in feeling that his personal preference should be respected by every one, quite as fully as President Roosevelt was justified four years ago in thinking that his preference for re-nomination at the head of the New York State ticket ought to have been accepted as conclusive.

Roosevelt's "Running Mate." Mr. Cannon would be a popular candidate; and if the convention believes his presence on the national ticket necessary to carry his own State of Illinois, it may disregard his wishes and treat him as Mr. Roosevelt was treated at Philadelphia. But this is not regarded as likely to happen. The name of another veteran Illinois Congressman, when mentioned last month, met with widespread favor. The Hon. Robert R. Hitt has served in the House for twenty years or more, and for a number of years past he has been chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. He is justly held in very high esteem for his qualities as a man and a citizen, no less than for his services and accomplishments as a diplomat, legislator, and statesman. Without seek-



HON. ROBERT R. HITT, OF ILLINOIS.
(A candidate for the Vice-Presidency.)

ing the place in rivalry with any one else, Mr. Hitt had allowed it to be known last month that he would appreciate the honor of nomination to the office of Vice-President and would willingly accept. Mr. Hitt was seventy years old in January. He was born in Ohio, but has lived in Illinois since he was three years old. He received a good education, and became a newspaper writer, being one of the first competent shorthand reporters in this country. His skill as a shorthand writer attached him to Lincoln, whom he accompanied through the exciting period of the debates with Douglas. For a number of years



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HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON, SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, AND HIS TWO GRANDCHILDREN.

(Mr. Cannon was prominent last month as chairman of the protracted State Republican convention of Illinois, and has been selected as permanent chairman of the national convention.)

he was connected with Chicago newspapers, and he was afterward at Washington as private secretary of Indiana's great Senator, Oliver P. Morton. In 1874, he was appointed secretary of legation at Paris, a position which he held for more than six years, until Mr. Blaine, as Secretary of State, selected him as First Assistant Secretary, in 1881. The following year, however, he was elected to Congress, and he has represented his district ever since.

*Mr. Hitt's
Excellent
Qualities.*

The country has a right to expect that both great parties will nominate for the Vice-Presidency men fully qualified for the office of President. The Vice-Presidency has no other use or meaning; and the country has had abundant illustration of the importance of selecting Vice-Presidents with care and wisdom. Mr. Hitt's selection would reflect honor upon the Republican party and strengthen it with the country. From the point

of view of campaign tactics, furthermore, Mr. Hitt's selection would probably be fortunate, since it would be likely to aid the party in the State of Illinois, where there are always many elements of political uncertainty, and where the Republican party has of late been more or less weakened by factional and personal differences. Mr. Hitt has not been involved in these Illinois factional disputes, as was shown last month when a very stormy and protracted State convention heartily and unanimously indorsed him for the Vice-Presidency.

*The
Illinois
Convention.*

The administration of the Hon. Richard Yates as governor of Illinois has not given universal satisfaction, and he was well aware, many months ago, that his desire for renomination would be opposed by the supporters of other very active candidates. The State convention met at Springfield on Thursday, May 12, and adjourned on the 20th. There was no difficulty about the adoption of a platform, the indorsement of President Roosevelt, and the selection, as delegates-at-large to the national convention, of Senators Cullom and Hopkins, Speaker Cannon, and Governor Yates. But a long and energetic previous canvass had secured compact bodies of supporters for several different candidates for the governorship, and they stuck to their men with remarkable persistence. The convention enjoyed the services of Speaker Cannon as its chairman, and its many scenes of disorder would possibly have developed beyond all control with a less experienced and popular presiding officer. Besides Governor Yates, the following candidates were formally presented to the convention before the balloting began: State Attorney Deneen; Attorney-General Hamlin; Col. Frank O. Lowden, of Chicago; Hon. Vespasian War-

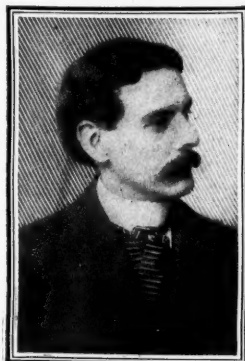


COL. FRANK O. LOWDEN, OF CHICAGO.

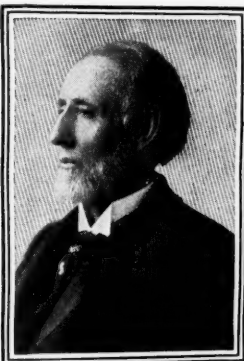
ner, and Hon. L. Y. Sherman. The convention was made up of about fifteen hundred delegates, of whom approximately five hundred were for Governor Yates and about four hundred each for Lowden and Deneen, the remaining votes being scattered among other candidates.

*The
Deadlock
Unbroken.*

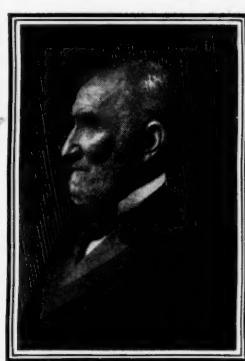
On Friday, May 20, the convention took its fifty-eighth ballot for the governorship candidates, and then by unanimous agreement adjourned to assemble again on the afternoon of May 31. On this fifty-eighth test, the candidates stood almost exactly as they did on the first ballot, the last



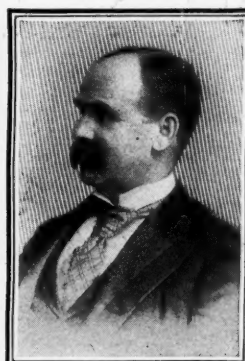
Governor Yates.



Senator Cullom.



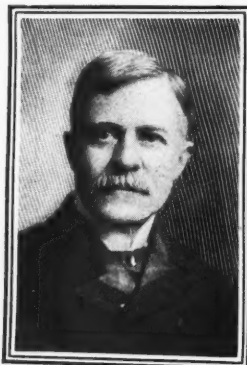
Speaker Cannon.



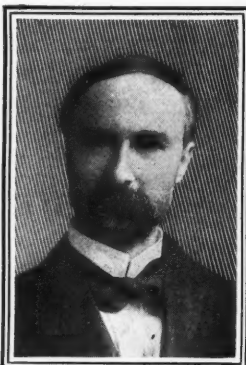
Senator Hopkins.

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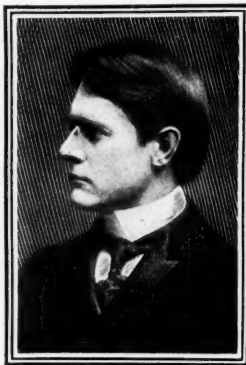
THE ILLINOIS DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.



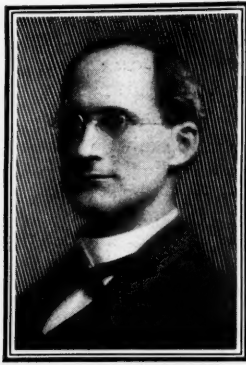
Governor Durbin.



Senator Fairbanks.



Senator Beveridge.



State Chairman Goodrich.

INDIANA'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

figures being,—Yates, 483; Lowden, 392½; De-
neen, 385½; Hamlin, 113; Warner, 53; Sher-
man, 46; Pierce, 29. The deadlock was due to
the remarkable attitude of Governor Yates, who
ought to have withdrawn when he found that
the convention was determined not to indorse
his administration. Of the other candidates,
Colonel Lowden possesses perhaps the greatest
elements of availability. The convention was
noteworthy for its sustained good temper.

*Indiana
Republican
Harmony.*

The Indiana Republicans had held
their convention on April 26 and 27,
and had shown a harmony that could
only be brought about by very good manage-
ment. President Roosevelt was warmly indorsed,
and the four delegates-at-large to the national
convention were instructed to support him.
These four are Senators Fairbanks and Bever-
idge, Governor Durbin, and State Chairman
Goodrich. Mr. Beveridge was indorsed for
another term in the Senate with an enthusiasm
that shows the country how firm a hold he has
won in the regard of the people of his own
State. The nominee for the governorship is
the Hon. J. Frank Hanly, of Lafayette. Mr.
Hanly has the reputation of being a remarkable
organizer and campaigner, with forcible person-
al qualities. He is opposed by organized labor on
account of his activity in securing certain legis-
lation regarded by the trade-unions as adverse
to their interests. Indiana is always made hard
fighting ground in Presidential years, but Re-
publican managers there like Mr. Beveridge
are confident that the State will give an unpre-
cedented majority for Roosevelt.

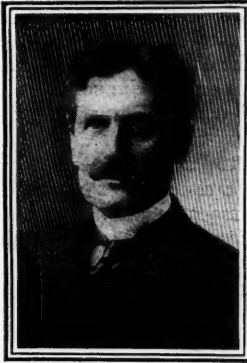


HON. J. FRANK HANLY.

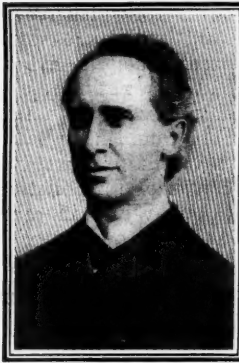
(Republican nominee for governor of Indiana.)

*Ditto
in Ohio
and Iowa.*

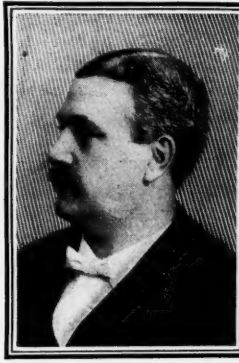
A number of Republican conventions
in important States were held on
May 18. The Ohio convention was
under the full control of the gentlemen who
have, as a syndicate, assumed the successorship
to the late Senator Hanna. The Foraker wing
of the party was in a helpless minority, but
Senator Foraker was the foremost personal fig-
ure in the convention, made the most eloquent
speech, and goes to the national convention as
one of the delegates-at-large with Governor Her-
rick, Mr. George B. Cox, the Cincinnati boss,
and Senator Dick. The convention was per-
functory, but was harmonious in its indorsement



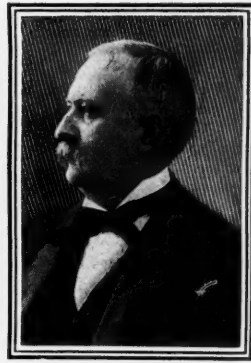
Governor Herrick.



Senator Dick.



George B. Cox.

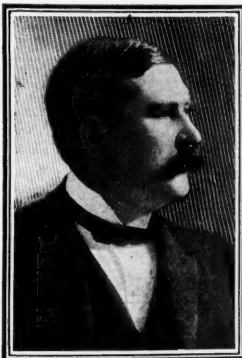


Senator Foraker.

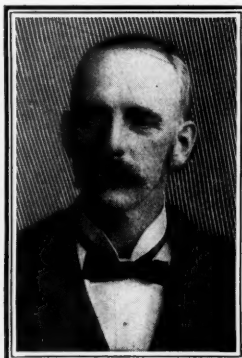
OHIO'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

of President Roosevelt, and entirely orthodox in its platform. The Iowa Republicans, on the same date, held their convention, attended by all the distinguished Hawkeye party leaders, and dominated by an element working in accord with a political manager named Blythe, who is in opposition to Gov. A. B. Cummins. The country is asked to believe that Governor Cummins' unpardonable sin is the expression of certain mild and obviously truthful views to the effect that President McKinley was quite right in thinking that the time had come for tariff-modification in the direction of reciprocity. Governor Cummins' real offense, perhaps, lies in his being a man of much ability and force of character, with great legal knowledge, rare training for public service, and, worst of all, an undisguised ambition for high office. Governor Cummins has always been an enthusiastic Roosevelt supporter, while Mr. Blythe is reputed to have acted, in Iowa, as the chief agent of the opponents of Roosevelt for as long a time as

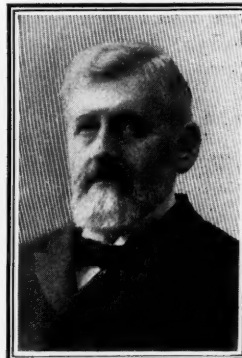
there was any possible chance of doing damage to the President's cause. On the tariff question, Governor Cummins' views are those sensible and progressive ones that, whether avowed or not this year, the Republican party must adopt and act upon in the Congressional elections two years hence or go down to humiliating defeat. Fortunately, the wisdom of great leaders like Senator Allison restrained the momentary majority in the Iowa convention, controversy was avoided, and Governor Cummins was properly named as one of the delegates-at-large to the national convention, with Senators Allison and Dolliver, and, as a fourth member, the victorious Mr. Blythe. The effort to misrepresent Governor Cummins' position on the tariff question has been to some extent successful, but it will not be permanently effective. The Michigan and Wisconsin conventions were also held on May 18, and in Michigan the work of naming delegates and adopting a platform was accomplished quickly and without sensational in-



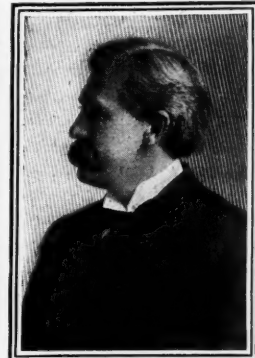
Senator Dolliver.



Secretary L. M. Shaw.



Senator Allison.



Governor Cummins.

IOWA'S FOREMOST REPUBLICANS NOW IN OFFICIAL LIFE.

cidents, President Roosevelt being indorsed with enthusiasm, and an orthodox Republican platform being adopted in which the tariff and reciprocity policies of Blaine and McKinley were named as living doctrines.

A Split in Wisconsin.

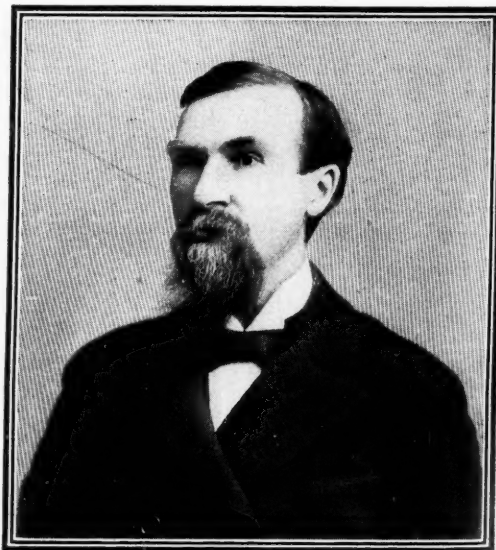
The Wisconsin Republicans were less fortunate. Factional differences which in Ohio and Iowa had been smoothed over by mutual concessions split the convention at Madison on the 18th, and the two halves assembled separately on the 19th, each claiming to



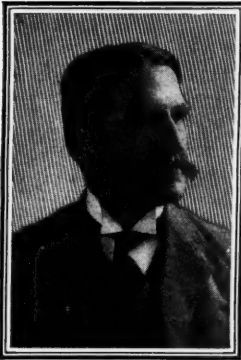
GOV. ROBERT M. LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN.
(Nominee for a third term on one of the rival Republican tickets.)

be the legitimate body. For a number of years there has been bitter discord between the wing of the party led by Governor La Follette, which has advocated radical taxation reforms and changes in methods of nomination, and the conservative wing of the party, to which Senators Spooner and Quarles and Postmaster-General Payne adhere. The radical wing has been strong enough to compel the reelection of Governor La Follette and to acquire control of the party machinery. But the division between the factions has been dangerously even, and contesting delegates came to Madison in such numbers that the control of the convention depended entirely upon the recognition of credentials. The La Follette central committee were charged with ruthlessly excluding the contestants of the other faction, as

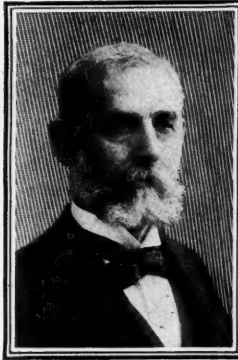
a result of which five hundred and seventy-five La Follette delegates were seated, and only four hundred and eighty-five of the other wing. If there had been nothing at stake except the sending of delegates to the national convention, a compromise would have been easy to arrange. But an entire State ticket was to be nominated, with Governor La Follette as a candidate for a third term. While in other respects acting as two complete and opposing conventions in their work of the 19th, they named identical lists of Presidential electors. Thus, President Roosevelt will poll the full strength of both Republican tickets; yet such a split is always unfortunate in a Presidential year, since it must inevitably give the State to the opposition party as respects State and local offices, and is likely also to affect adversely the vote for Presidential electors. Governor La Follette's convention unanimously made him its nominee for a third term, and rounded out a State ticket with his supporters, adopting a platform and naming delegates-at-large to the national convention. The bolting convention had in it most of the State's distinguished leaders, speeches being made by Senators Spooner and Quarles, and Representative Babcock, chairman of the National Congressional Republican Committee. The Hon. S. A. Cook was nominated for governor by acclamation, and both Senators were named as delegates-at-large to Chicago. The conventions vied with each other in loyalty to President Roosevelt.



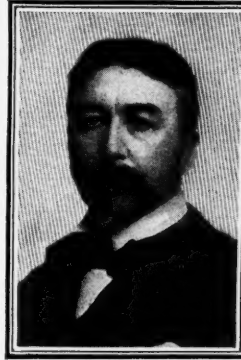
HON. S. A. COOK.
(The "Stalwart" Republican nominee for governor of Wisconsin.)



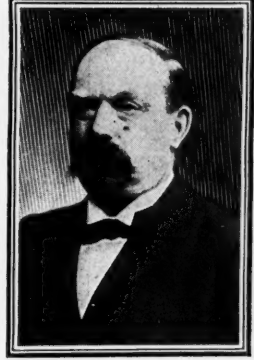
Senator Kean.



Senator Dryden.



Governor Murphy.



Hon. David Baird.

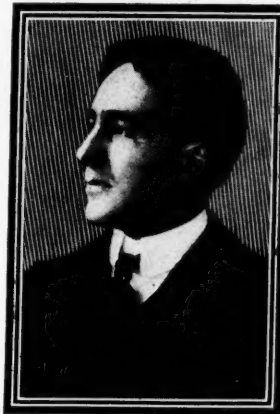
NEW JERSEY'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

The Nebraska Convention. The Nebraska Republicans, on May 18, came forward with a favorite son in the person of the Hon. John L. Webster, whom they indorsed as a Vice-Presidential candidate. Their indorsement of President Roosevelt was hearty and unqualified. According to Nebraska custom, the convention named a candidate for the United States Senate. They agreed upon Congressman Elmer J. Burkett, of Lincoln, who, in case of the election of a Republican legislature, will be promoted to the seat in the Senate now held by Charles H. Dietrich. The present governor, the Hon. John H. Mickey, was renominated for the same office.

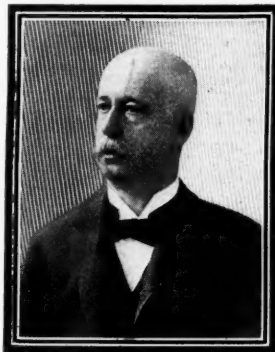
Some Eastern Republicans. The States of Connecticut and New Jersey, like the great State of New York, which they adjoin, are always regarded as critical in Presidential campaigns, and of late have been counted necessary to Democratic success. The Republicans of New Jersey showed great enthusiasm for President Roosevelt in their convention of May 10, and they are expressing much confidence in their ability to give him a large majority. They chose as their delegates-at-large to the Chicago convention United States Senators Kean and Dryden, Gov. Franklin Murphy, and the Hon. David Baird. The Connecticut convention, held on the same day as that of New

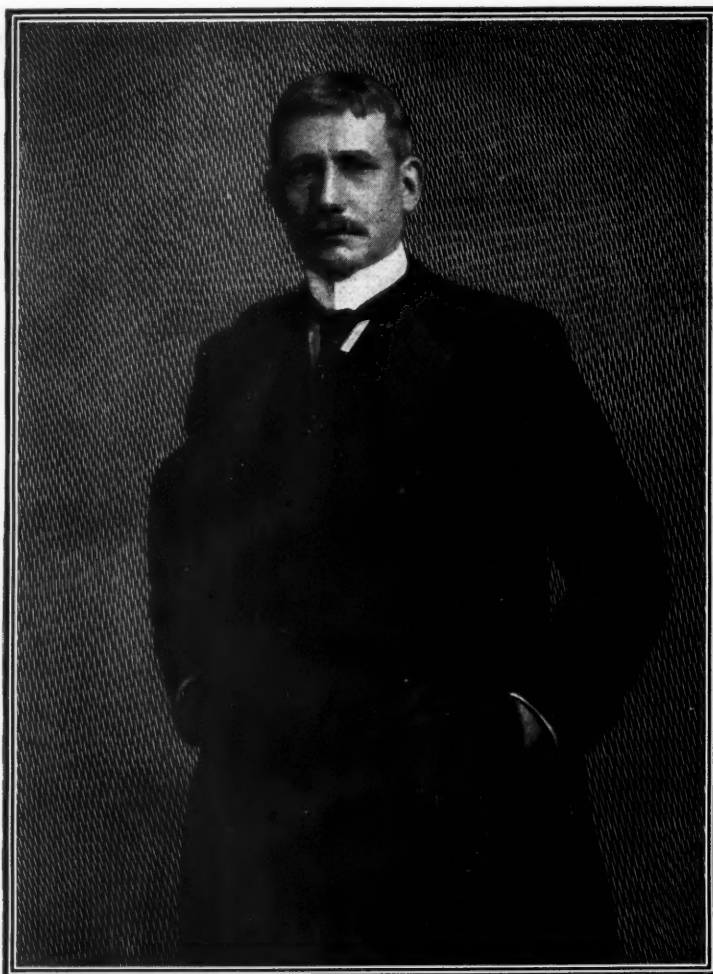
Jersey, showed a like heartiness in its indorsement of the President, and the platform identified his administration with the prosperity and high prestige of the country. Mr. Charles S. Mellen, president of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad system, is one of the Connecticut delegates to the national convention. The Maryland convention was held under the chairmanship of Senator McComas, and exhibited the prevailing Republican harmony. The new Maryland arrangements virtually disfranchising the negro

voters will probably be found to have made the State safely Democratic, under Senator Gorman's direction. In spite, however, of the race issue, President Roosevelt is popular in all the border States, from Maryland and Delaware to Missouri, and will make a strong run. The negro votes in the Northern States will be almost unanimous in his

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL,
OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

support. Among the delegates from New Hampshire is to be noted the name of Mr. Winston Churchill. His new novel, "The Crossing," third in his great historical series, has just reached the market. It is a good thing when men like Churchill go into politics. Among the New York delegates will be found President Butler, of Columbia University, who, like President Roosevelt, sat in the famous convention of 1884.

MR. CHARLES S. MELLEN, OF
CONNECTICUT.



HON. ELIHU ROOT, OF NEW YORK.—FROM A NEW PHOTOGRAPH.

(Mr. Root is to be temporary chairman of the Republican national convention, and is much wanted by New York Republicans as their candidate for governor.)

*The
State
Platforms.*

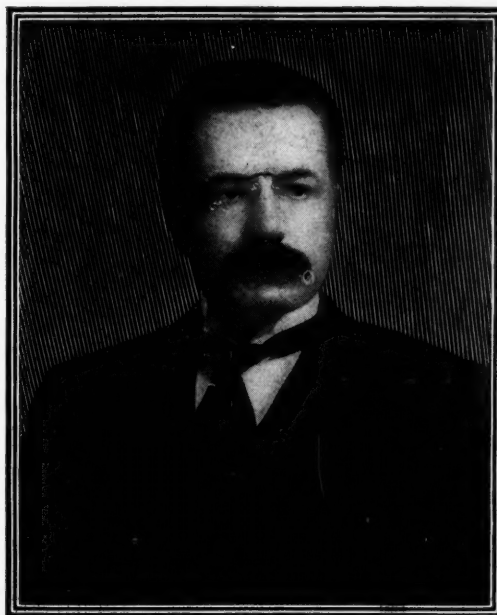
There is one thing very noticeable indeed in the situation as disclosed in the various Republican State conventions, and that is the definite, confident, and rather aggressive tone of the platforms adopted. They invite the country to give the Republican party another four years' lease of power on the strength of its record during the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations. They demand the retention of the protective policy; and while not pledging themselves to a maintenance of the Dingley schedules, they express no sense whatever of a serious need of any sort of tariff-revision. They point to the unprecedented prosper-

ity that the country has enjoyed for some years as associated closely and essentially with national Republican measures, notably the settling of the money question and the substitution of the Dingley for the Wilson tariff. While approving of the measure of reciprocity established with Cuba, they do not advocate any general extension of reciprocal trade relations. In short, they stand upon the party's record and achievements, and expect to be trusted to meet further problems as they present themselves. In their general tone and statements, the Republican platforms throughout the country show an exceptional degree of similarity to one another. It is expected

that the platform adopted by the national convention at Chicago will be based upon a draught provided by Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, who will be chairman of the committee on resolutions, and who was the author of the State platform adopted by the Massachusetts Republicans in April, and noted by us last month.

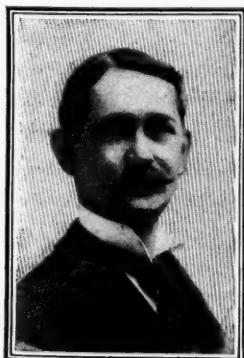
It is now a matter of common consent among all Republicans that the Hon. Elihu Root, of New York, is to be temporary chairman of the national convention, and in that capacity is to make the opening speech, which is always regarded as the chief oratorical effort of a national convention and becomes a campaign document of authoritative rank. With Mr. Root serving in this capacity, Speaker Cannon acting as permanent chairman, and Senator Lodge presenting the platform, it is plain that the utterances and general spirit of the convention will be in keeping with its action in nominating President Roosevelt. Further than this, there was a current report last month that the reorganization of the Republican National Committee would result in the selection of the Hon. George B. Cortelyou as its chairman, thus making him chief manager of President Roosevelt's campaign. Mr. Cortelyou is now a member of the President's cabinet, holding the portfolio of the Department of Commerce and Labor, and before that department was established he was Secretary to the President.

His acceptance of the position of chairman of the National Committee would, of course, make it necessary for him to resign his present office, and it is rumored that in such a case he might be succeeded by the Hon. James R. Garfield, now at the head of the Bureau of Corporations, which

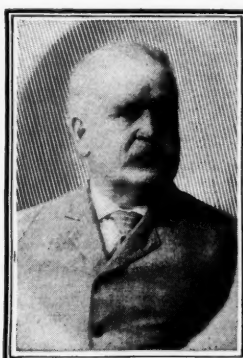


HON. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.
(Who is expected to serve as chairman of the National Committee and manage the Republican campaign.)

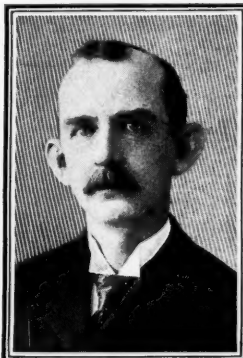
was created by law as a branch of the new Department of Commerce, or else by ex-Governor Crane, of Massachusetts. Whether or not Mr. Cortelyou is to manage the campaign this year, it would be highly appropriate that a man of his type and character should be selected. He is a good organizer and administrator, is a man of conscience and conviction, and would insist upon a very energetic campaign upon open, straightforward, and legitimate lines. There is a large amount of necessary work to be done by



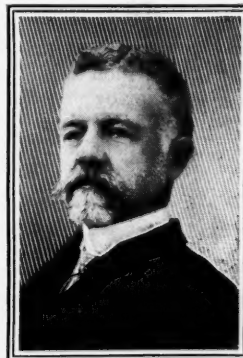
Mr. Everett C. Benton.



Hon. John D. Long.



Ex-Governor Crane.



Senator Lodge.

THE MASSACHUSETTS DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.



HON. RICHARD OLNEY.

(Named by Massachusetts Democrats for the Presidency.)

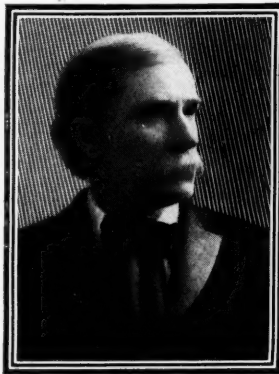
both parties, although a great deal more importance is attached by certain classes of politicians to what is called campaign strategy than the facts justify. The prevailing public opinion that renders the final verdict in a Presidential election is not shaped principally by the influences set at work consciously at campaign headquarters. Nevertheless, there is a broad field for effective work open to the directors of campaign methods, and it is particularly desirable that the campaign this year on both sides should be free from old-fashioned political tricks and should show modern methods of the kind familiar to men who now conduct large business enterprises or carry on important organizations. There is plenty of good administrative talent to be had, and, whether or not Mr. Cortelyou is to be the Republican chairman, it is a good sign that he should have been seriously spoken of for the place.

The Democratic situation shows no marked change since the Parker movement received so decisive an impetus, in April, by the favorable action of the New York State convention. Southern Democratic managers in general have been ready enough to follow the lead of New York, and the impression prevails that Judge Parker will be the nominee. Nevertheless, there are many Democrats even among those not friendly to

*Mr. Olney's
Massachusetts
Friends.*

Hearst's candidacy who distrust the influences that have created, developed, and dominated the so-called "Parker boom" and would greatly prefer a candidate whose nomination could be shown to have been independent of the planning and support of the great trusts and corporations. The Massachusetts Democrats, in their convention at Boston, on April 21, instructed their representatives at St. Louis to support the Hon. Richard Olney, who was Secretary of State in Mr. Cleveland's last administration and is held in great respect throughout the country. The Hearst advocates were led by the Hon. George Fred Williams, whose earlier hopes of success were completely frustrated, the Olney supporters having considerably more than two-thirds of the convention behind them. The delegates-at-large to St. Louis will be Mayor Patrick A. Collins, of Boston; the Hon. William A. Gaston, former Democratic candidate for governor; the Hon. John R. Thayer, of Worcester, and the Hon. William L. Douglas, of Brockton. In case of a failure to reach an agreement on Judge Parker, at St. Louis, it is by no means impossible that the Massachusetts men may succeed in securing the nomination of Mr. Olney, although such an outcome is quite improbable.

Meanwhile, the Democrats of Pennsylvania had held their convention at Harrisburg, and had decided to send an uninstructed delegation to St. Louis, bound,



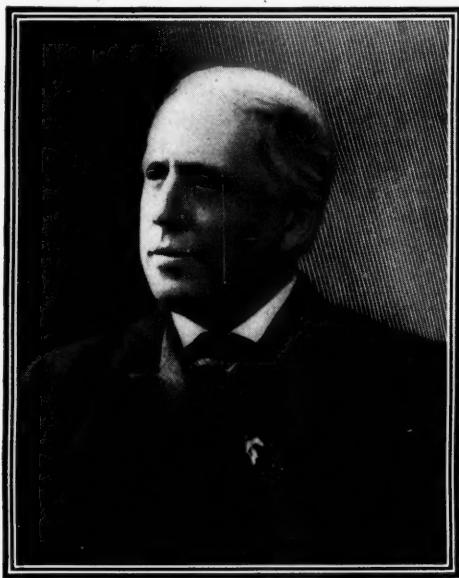
COLONEL M'GUFFEY.

(Leader of the Pennsylvania Democrats.)

however, to act together, in accordance with what is termed the "unit rule." An attempt to instruct for Judge Parker failed, although the delegation is regarded as friendly rather than otherwise in its attitude toward the New York candidate. Naturally, there is much interest on the part of Parker men to know how Pennsylvania's great block of sixty-eight convention votes will be handled at St. Louis. Col. James McGuffey is the leader, and will presumably control the delegation. The Gorman men believe that if the signs are at all favorable Colonel McGuffey and the Pennsylvanians will

to know how

from the very start support the Maryland Senator, although they admit that if nothing practical can be done for Gorman the Pennsylvania support will probably revert to Parker. On the other hand, it is said among the political gossips that Pennsylvania's delegation may be used as the starting-point for a stampede of the convention in favor of Mayor George B. McClellan, of New York. And thus the political pot simmers.

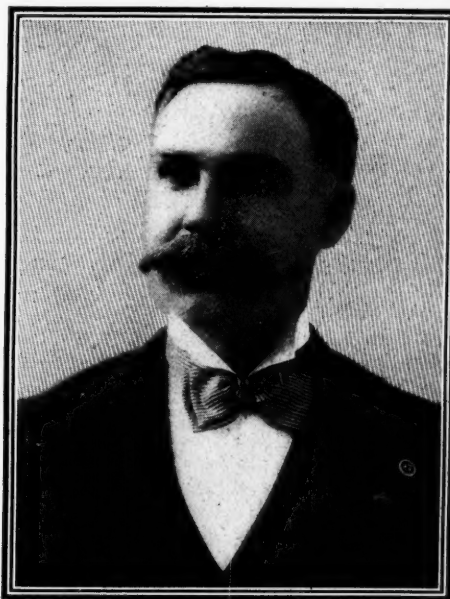


SENATOR GORMAN, OF MARYLAND.

(A prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination.)

Some Friends of Gorman. The West Virginia convention, held the day after that of Pennsylvania and the day before that of Massachusetts, had chosen an uninstructed delegation, with the understanding that its members were in favor of Senator Gorman first, and probably of Judge Parker second. Senator Gorman had also secured the delegation from the District of Columbia, for which Mr. Hearst had made a strong contest, and it was entirely certain that the Maryland convention to be held on May 26 would be under the control of Mr. Gorman and his friends. It was evident that there might still be some chance for Mr. Gorman as a compromise candidate at St. Louis.

The Democrats of Indiana. The most interesting convention, from the Democratic standpoint, after the decisive victory of Judge Parker at Albany was that which was held at Indianapolis on May 12. The Hearst men had



HON. THOMAS TAGGART, OF INDIANA.

(Who may conduct the Democratic campaign.)

shown great activity and determination, but they were able to control less than five hundred delegates, as against more than a thousand who were prepared to support Judge Parker. The convention instructed the thirty Indiana delegates to vote for the New York candidate, and recommended the leader of their organization, the Hon. Thomas Taggart, for national chairman and campaign manager this year. It was noted that the mention of the name of George B. McClellan aroused great enthusiasm in the convention at Indianapolis. It is intimated that the Indiana support of Parker may be only a formal one for the first ballot or two. The results, however, were, on their face, a marked victory for the New York candidate.

Parker in the Doubtful States.

It is to be borne in mind that it is generally regarded as necessary to Democratic success that New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Indiana should be carried in the election, and the Connecticut delegation, on May 6, had been instructed to vote as a unit for Judge Parker. The New Jersey convention had been held early, on April 4, and although the delegation was uninstructed, in accordance with New Jersey custom, the prevailing sentiment was for Parker. The New Jersey delegates would be for Cleveland if there were any chance of securing his



HON. EDWARD C. WALL, OF MILWAUKEE.
(Named for the Presidency by Wisconsin Democrats.)

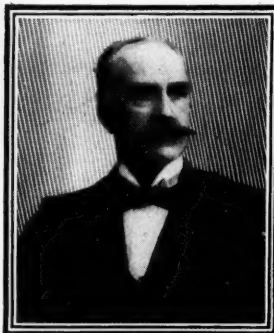
nomination, but otherwise are expected to support Judge Parker, who has been heartily indorsed by Mr. Cleveland himself.

Ohio and Mr. Harmon. The Ohio Democrats, whose convention was set for the 24th, were more likely to send their delegates to St. Louis uninstructed, although the Cincinnati delegates were for the Hon. Judson Harmon, who was Attorney-General under President Cleveland, and it was thought possible that the entire Ohio delegation might be led to give Mr. Harmon at least a complimentary support. Meanwhile, the delegates had been selected in a number of Ohio Congressional districts, several of which had been carried for Mr. Hearst by the radicals.

California and Iowa are for Hearst. The Iowa delegation was instructed for Mr. Hearst, on May 4, by a considerable majority, in a large and turbulent convention. One of the four delegates-at-large is Gen. James B. Weaver, once the Populist candidate for the Presidency, and the other three members are Messrs. J. M. Parsons, F. M. Carr, and S. B. Wadsworth. It had all along been regarded by the managers of the Hearst movement as indispensable to carry California, which is Mr. Hearst's native State. He is the proprietor of the San Francisco *Examiner*, and he has recently established a news-

paper of the same name at Los Angeles. The convention was held at Santa Cruz, on May 16 and 17, and after a bitter and uncompromising struggle, it ended in a victory for Mr. Hearst by the narrow margin of nineteen votes.

Wall is Wisconsin's Choice. The Hearst support was so strong in Wisconsin that it looked at one time as if it might control the State convention; but the anti-Hearst Democrats rallied around a favorite local candidate in the person of Edward C. Wall, and as a result, the Wisconsin delegates, on May 17, were instructed for Wall by a vote of 304 to 226 for Hearst. It is declared that this Wall delegation from Wisconsin would readily support Judge Parker if that should seem the best thing to be done at St. Louis.

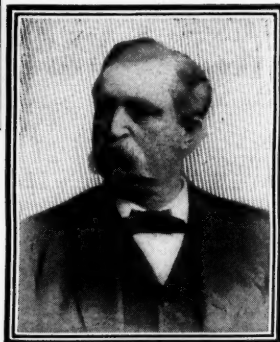


HON. JUDSON HARMON, OF OHIO.
(Whose friends propose him as a Presidential candidate.)

Parker movement secured the control of the New York State convention has not been followed by any such degree of acquiescence and harmony as had been hoped for. The fight between the Tammany forces and the Hill-Parker combination has progressed with increasing bitterness, and the mutual charges and accusations are furnishing the Republicans with ammunition for their campaign. A few weeks ago, the New York Republican situation seemed to be faction-torn and disfigured, but the scars have been healing, and, in any case, the Democratic plight is decidedly worse.

Gouverneur Odell's Vetoes. The New York Republicans had been hurt by the recklessness of the last legislature and by the belief that it was improperly, if not corruptly, influenced by

Strife in New York. The victory by which ex-Senator Hill, Mr. Belmont, and the group managing the



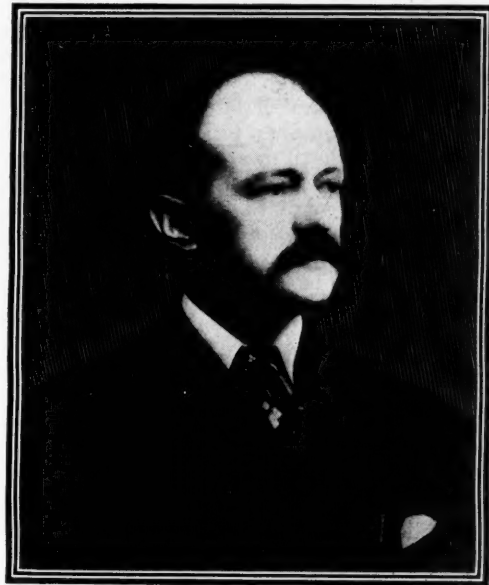
HON. JAMES B. WEAVER.
(An Iowa delegate-at-large to the St. Louis convention.)

several great corporations in the passage of measures against which the best newspapers and various organized bodies of citizens had earnestly protested. But these measures were passed late in the session; and to become effective had to be signed by the governor, who is allowed, under the New York constitution, a period of thirty days after the adjournment of the Legislature within which to approve or disapprove. Among these measures, the one most talked about in the New York newspapers was known as the Remsen bill, granting certain desired privileges to the Consolidated Gas monopoly of New York City, the exact nature and extent of which were matters of interpretation upon which there was wide difference of opinion. Under the New York system, laws affecting the municipality are submitted for approval or disapproval to the mayor before the governor takes final action. In the case of this gas bill, Mayor McClellan gave his approval, thereby arousing much criticism and exposing himself to attack on the ground of undue deference to powerful corporate influences. Governor Odell in due time vetoed the measure, and thus took the position of being a better and a firmer protector of the interests of the people of New York City than their own mayor. This circumstance brought back to mind the fact that in a former period Mr. Odell had been powerfully influential in securing the repeal of the charter of the Ramapo Water Company at a time when that objectionable company had been abetted by a Tammany city government in its nefarious plan to control the sources of New York City's future water-supply. Another measure passed by the last legislature conferred rights and powers at Niagara upon private interests desiring to monopolize the water power at the expense of the scenery,—a bill that aroused great indignation and was generally assailed by the newspapers. Here, also, Governor Odell intervened, last month, with a veto which enhances his own reputation and to some extent relieves the Republican party of its burden of odium. The governor, under the New York constitution, has the right to veto items in appropriation bills. Taking advantage of this power, Governor Odell has, by an unprecedented application of the pruning-knife, cut two million dollars out of the aggregate sum voted by the Legislature. He is now chairman of the State Republican Committee.

*The Crusade
Against
Gambling.* A measure of much local interest in New York City passed by the recent legislature was a bill so changing existing laws as to make it possible to obtain evidence against the keepers of gambling-houses.

Heretofore, the habitués of such places could not be compelled to testify, on the ground that in so doing they might give evidence tending to degrade or incriminate themselves. This change in the law was due to the personal efforts of District Attorney Jerome, who has for several years waged a determined though only partially successful warfare against the gambling evil in New York City. As an immediate result of the new bill, Mr. Jerome was in a position, last month, to frighten the richest and most famous of New York gamblers into abandonment of his business and removal to England.

Gambling, in a city like New York, takes on various forms. Perhaps the worst evil is that of the so-called "policy-shops," which are patronized by boys,



CAPT. F. NORTON GODDARD, OF NEW YORK.

and by men of very small means and income. Against this form of gambling, many people who have a concern for the moral good of the rising generation in our great cities have contended with all their might, counting always upon the coöperation of zealous officials like Mr. Jerome. One of the most conspicuous leaders against the policy-shop keepers in New York has been and now is Capt. F. Norton Goddard, a gentleman of means and education, still young, who ranks high among practical Republican politicians of New York, and who gives constantly of his time and means for the betterment

of the community. Circumstances, last month, lifted Mr. Goddard into a new and national prominence as a leader against a widespread gambling evil of another form,—namely, that carried on in the so-called “pool-rooms,” which are centers for gambling upon the daily results of horse-racing on the various tracks throughout the country, but especially those in the general vicinity of New York City. As most of our readers are perhaps aware, the horse-racing on the famous Eastern tracks is no longer related in any important way at all to the turf as a legitimate sporting interest, but exists almost solely as a basis for organized gambling. Many thousands of the nondescript and peculiar people who gather in the great metropolis of New York go every day to the race-tracks, not through any honest interest in horseflesh, but partly for the excitement of betting, and partly for the hope of gain from their dealings with the “pool-sellers” and “book-makers.” But, for every hundred people who have the time and opportunity to go to the race-tracks, there are probably several hundred unfortunate victims of the gambling mania who manage to squander their small means in one or another of the pool-rooms conveniently scattered throughout every portion of the city. Some of these pool-rooms are run especially or exclusively for women; all of them are under the strict ban of the law; and to be engaged in such a business is to commit a crime, under the penal code.

Complicity of the Western Union. So much by way of preface. Now, it would be inconvenient, and, indeed, almost impossible, to carry on these pool-rooms without a constant and well-organized service of racing news supplied direct from the various race-tracks. Last month, a committee of the City Club (this club being an excellent organization in New York devoted to civic and municipal reform) made a report upon its investigation of the pool-room evil in New York City. Captain Goddard presented the report as chairman of the committee. The nub of it was that complete evidence had been obtained to show that the Western Union Telegraph Company was not only regularly supplying the pool-rooms with the requisite racing news, but that it was cheerfully aiding in the establishment of additional pool-rooms by methods in no way short of aiding and abetting the commission of crime. The report was so complete and definite that it left no room for doubt. It might, however, have had no practical effect if the newspapers had chosen to belittle or ignore it. On the contrary, they gave it sensational publicity and active support.

An Acute Discussion.

The Western Union Telegraph Company, through its president, Mr. Clowry, replied in a statement which read well, but which evaded the points at issue. Mr. Clowry defended the methods of the company on the ground that it was the duty of the Western Union to transmit all telegrams submitted to it which were not couched in profane or improper language; and he held that racing news did not, in form, violate the proprieties. Mr. Clowry's statement was unfortunate for the company, because its evasions were so easily exposed; and the bad position of the Western Union was at once relentlessly assailed in quarters of great strength and influence. Mayor McClellan, as our readers are aware, had been so fortunate as to secure for commissioner of police an able lawyer and experienced and high-minded public man in the person of Mr. William McAdoo, who at once came forward to take a leading part in the argument against the position of the Western Union. With Mr. Jerome, the prosecuting attorney, equally energetic, and with nearly all the newspapers, as we have said, taking a strong and clear position in stating the facts in their true bearings, the Western Union found itself, in a few days, in a position that exposed its distinguished board of directors, not merely to public obloquy, but to very serious danger of indictment for daily profitable complicity in crime.

The Facts in the Case.

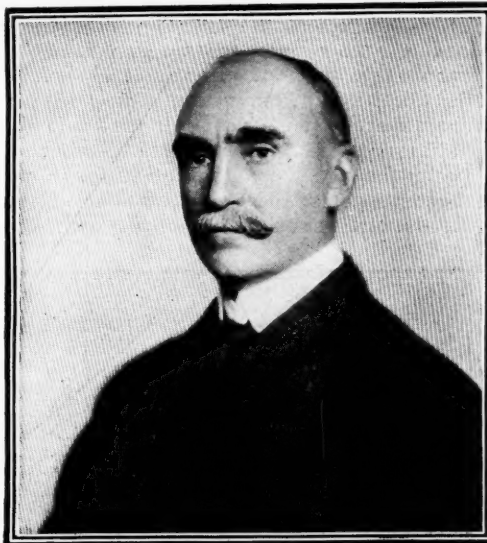
The practices of the Western Union were soon made entirely plain. It was not in the least true that it had merely acted as a common carrier,—that is to say, had only received and transmitted telegrams as in the ordinary course of business in its forwarding of news from the racing fields. On the contrary, the Western Union Telegraph Company had created a highly lucrative monopoly of the ownership and sale of racing news, using its wires merely for the distribution of its commodity. It had arranged with the proprietors of the race-tracks to give its agents exclusive opportunities, and it had thus not merely supplied the pool-rooms with their news, but it had in point of fact been the chief factor in creating the whole pool-room system of the country as a market for its wares. It was, moreover, shown that the Western Union Company, having thus created the pool-room system, was in a position virtually to blackmail the pool-room keepers by charging them outrageously exorbitant prices for a service which otherwise they could not obtain. It was shown conclusively, furthermore, that the pool-rooms were supplied by the Western Union Company with telegraph operators

especially trained and skillful in aiding the keepers of such places to evade the police and dodge the emissaries of the district attorney. The telegraph wires were brought down chimneys, or in other similar ways hidden as much as possible from the officers of the law. Everything in the organization and conduct of this racing service, from beginning to end, indicated a knowledge on the part of the officials of the Western Union Company that the business, though immensely profitable, was risky and hazardous, because criminal.

At length, as the situation began to grow dangerous for the Western Union people, an order was issued, on

May 17, and given to the newspapers, to the effect that the racing service as supplied in New York City had been on that date discontinued. The newspapers, however, of the morning of the 18th laughed this order to scorn, because they readily asserted that all the pool-rooms were as completely served with news as before, the Western Union having merely shifted its center of operations for the racing service across the Hudson River to Jersey City, from which point the New York pool-rooms were supplied without delay and without any loss of revenue to the Western Union Company by means of an arrangement with the Bell Telephone Company. A railroad company could not, it is true, be expected to use extraordinary vigilance to see that burglars never purchased tickets or rode on passenger trains from one city to another. But a railroad company that should go into the business of organizing a service of special night trains to enable bank robbers to escape, with the understanding that it should receive a very large part of the average profits of safe-blowing, would be engaged in a distinct departure from the function of a common carrier. There is no flaw in the analogy. The Western Union Telegraph Company, well knowing that the carrying on of the pool-room business is a crime in New York, as it is in most States of the Union, had nevertheless acquired a monopoly of the collection and sale of the commodity which alone makes pool-rooms possible, and had then gone deliberately into the business of helping the pool-rooms to evade the officers of the law, on condition of sharing largely in their ill-gotten gains.

Some of the directors of the Western Union Telegraph Company have large reputation as philanthropists, and the same thing is true of some of the principal stockholders who are not directors. For a few days after the Goddard exposure, some of these gen-



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HON. WILLIAM M'ADOO.

(Police commissioner of New York, who is winning public approval for his energy and efficiency.)

tle men were taking refuge behind their professed ignorance of the details of the business of the company, while others were quite ready to give assurances that whenever they were convinced that the company was engaged in any unlawful or improper business they would refuse to countenance it. Yet, to the unbiased mind, nothing could have been more evident than that these gentlemen were engaged in a business for which there could be no excuse, because it would have been a most objectionable traffic in every moral aspect, even if it had not been a manifestly criminal one under the penal code. Some of these men have deeply reprobated the practice of the New York police in blackmailing gambling-houses and places of ill repute. But in theory and in practice, the Western Union has itself not only been guilty of a similar form of moral offense, but it has gone further, since it has acted as chief agent in the creation of the system of gambling-houses upon which it has been able afterward to levy its immense daily tribute.

The Chief Offender.

For it is to be remembered, as we have already explained, that the Western Union had not been acting merely as a telegraph company, taking tolls for the transmission of racing news, but had been engaged in the business of collecting and selling this news, as well as of transmitting it; and its system had naturally,—and, of course, inten-

tionally,—promoted the creation everywhere throughout the country, as far as possible, of the pool-room business. In any other country in the world except our own, private telegraph companies are so amenable to authority that they would never dream for a moment of having lists of pool-rooms which were not at all times open to the inspection of the police and other officials engaged in the enforcement of the law. But.



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DISTRICT ATTORNEY JEROME.

now that the facts were known as to responsibility for the existence of the pool-room evil,—if the laws of New York and of other States were not found sufficiently explicit to enable public authorities to strike at the root of the thing,—it would be easy to amend those laws, and the people were ready to do it. The Western Union Telegraph Company had been discovered as the principal offender, since the pool-room system was merely the method it had developed for the profitable sale to gamblers of its racing news, and since the agents and collectors and operators of the telegraph company, rather than the keepers of the pool-rooms, were the important people in the details of the system. Although this agitation began as a matter local to the metropolis, it was taken up at once as a subject of concern in almost every other city and State of the Union. Corroborative facts were brought to light in various places.

The Final and Precipitate Retreat.

Mr. Jerome, with his new statutory power to obtain evidence, was said to be about to summon the whole board of directors of the Western Union Telegraph Company into court; and the prospects of their names being unpleasantly presented to a grand jury were far from remote. All such disagreeable experiences were fended off, however, by their complete and precipitate abandonment of their unlawful business. The directors met on May 19, and on that date President Clowry issued an order to the company's general superintendents at New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and Atlanta which read as follows:

It has been decided to discontinue forthwith the collection and distribution by this company of horse-race reports. You will please act accordingly. Acknowledge receipt.—ROBERT C. CLOWRY, president and general manager.

Mr. Jerome promptly declared that he took this order at its face value, and believed that the directors proposed to bring forth fruits meet for repentance. The date of the order coincided exactly with the date upon which it had been reported that criminal proceedings would be begun against the Western Union directors for aiding and abetting a felony; and it was on the morning of that day that summonses were to be issued to all the directors. Certainly, a new sort of crisis had to be faced.

A Well-Seasoned Culprit.

One would like to believe that it was a sense of moral duty toward the public rather than a fear of Mr. Jerome as a prosecutor that brought about so sweeping and unexpected an action on the part of the Western Union Company. But it is impossible to overlook the fact that this moral issue has not now been presented to the company for the first time, by any means. The Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth declares that for ten years he and other gentlemen in Connecticut have been fighting against the telegraph company's complicity in the pool-room evil. In various other places, at various times, attempts have been made, with more or less temporary success, to induce the Western Union Company to cease its promotion of pool-room gambling. It is a good many years since the Western Union went into the pool-room enterprise; and it had been developed into the most profitable single department of all the ramified business of this great monopoly. It was estimated by the newspapers, last month, that there were three hundred pool-rooms in New York City alone; and some of them stated the gross income of the Western Union's race-track news business to be not less than five million dollars a year.

This was probably an overstatement. *A Loss of Revenue.* But a very conservative financial paper, the *Wall Street Journal*, went into the matter in some detail on May 19, and came to the conclusion that a minimum estimate would be that the company had been deriving two million dollars a year net profits from its pool-room traffic. This figure, when placed in relation with the fact that in the year ending June 30 last the total net revenue of the company was \$8,214,472, shows, first, how tremendous an item in the company's profits the pool-room tribute money had come to be, and, second, what a drastic measure the directors adopted on the 18th when they abolished this whole department, throwing, probably, from two thousand to three thousand of their most expert servants out of work without notice, and putting the pool-room proprietors, who had gone into the business under the company's auspices, in a very sorry plight. The directors and chief owners of the Western Union Telegraph Company might indeed have established a pretty large reputation for philanthropy on annual donations of much less money than the total of their side winnings as partners in the pool-room gambling business.

Chicago's Experience. Now that the thing has been exposed and the company has reformed, everybody would be glad to forget as well as to forgive. But it is neither right nor safe that the truth should be left untold or the facts be forgotten; for, however good its present intentions may be, the Western Union Telegraph Company has been a sad sinner for a long time, and it is only too likely again to fall from grace. It has had faithful admonitions in years past, and surely these could not have escaped the attention of its eminent directors. A single quotation will suffice to show the sort of admonition to which we refer. Eight years ago, the upright citizens of Chicago were having a fight against the pool-room evil, and against another form of gambling quite as pernicious and very prevalent in that city,—namely, the bucket-shops. At that time, the late William T. Baker was president of the Chicago Board of Trade, and he was also president of the Civic Federation. He had been president of the Columbian Exposition in 1893. This eminent citizen, in his report for 1896, as president of the Board of Trade, made statements from which the following is a quotation:

Bucket-shops and pool-rooms are twin outlaws in nearly every State in the Union. Their united corruption fund has enabled them to baffle justice by debauchery of the constituted authority for the investigation and prosecution of crime, but they could not continue in existence a day but for their alliance with

the Western Union Telegraph Company. That company furnishes all the machinery and all the news on which bets are laid, and it is the only telegraph company in the United States that leases wires for the private use of bucket-shops in swindling their patrons. The spectacle of a corporation with a hundred million dollars' capital paying dividends gleaned from the vice and crime of the country is one to make any American blush. Contrast this with the conduct of some of the great newspapers of this city, which cannot be hired to print the harmless-appearing advertisements of bucket-shops. It may be said that a great commercial organization like this has no need to concern itself with questions of morals, but the ethics of business are based on a high standard of commercial morality, which it is our duty to preach and to practise. When we see our efforts to rid ourselves of the incubus of bucket-shops embarrassed by such a condition as is here outlined, we find our self-interest exalted by our patriotic duty as citizens in striking down a wrong. The crusade in which we have been so long engaged will not cease. Complete success will, however, be hastened by our maintaining among ourselves an unimpeachable standard of business honor.

Vigilance Still Needed. It is hard to believe that statements like these could have failed to reach those responsible for the conduct of the Western Union Telegraph Company. While, therefore, the public will doubtless take the new policy of the company as now adopted in good faith, it will regard the situation as one requiring close and careful watching. The great gambling public, under the tutelage of the Western Union, has become so steeped in the pool-room habit that it will still be difficult, if not impossible, for the agents of the law to suppress the business. The telephone company has promised to coöperate with the police in New York; but doubtless the pool-room men will manage in one way or another to get their supply of news from the race-tracks. The Western Union Company will, of course, receive racing news when filed and transmitted as ordinary messages. Nobody objects to its acting in the normal capacity of a telegraph company; but it must cease to play the rascal, and it must give up its confidential relations with law-breakers, and destroy its criminal paraphernalia. To clear itself with the public, it must now go to the other extreme and act the part of the good citizen, helping the public authorities to suppress vice and crime.

Law Must Be Respected. Quite apart from the nature or extent of the gambling evil that it is desired to suppress by the merited attack upon the villainies practised by the Western Union Telegraph Company, the vigorous movement now under way is reassuring for another reason. It is a part of the new assertion of

representatives of law and government against the great corporations that for a good many years past have thought themselves superior to the law and have trampled upon it with impunity. The Western Union Company's pool-rooms have been an incomparably greater source of evil in New York than Mr. Canfield's gambling-houses. Why, therefore, should the distinguished gentlemen who have been the principal beneficiaries of the pool-room system not be held accountable? The time is fast drawing to an end when leading financiers and eminent citizens can in their private and personal capacity be esteemed as pillars of the Church, patrons of education, and mainstays of philanthropy while in their capacity as directors of corporations they bribe legislators, plunder their communities, and play the part of the worst enemies of the social welfare. New York has suffered peculiarly from the lawlessness of predatory corporations, but few parts of the country have wholly escaped.

*Leaders of a
Hopeful
Movement.*

The action of men like Folk in St. Louis, several who might be named in Chicago, and the leaders of a growing brotherhood of courageous citizenship



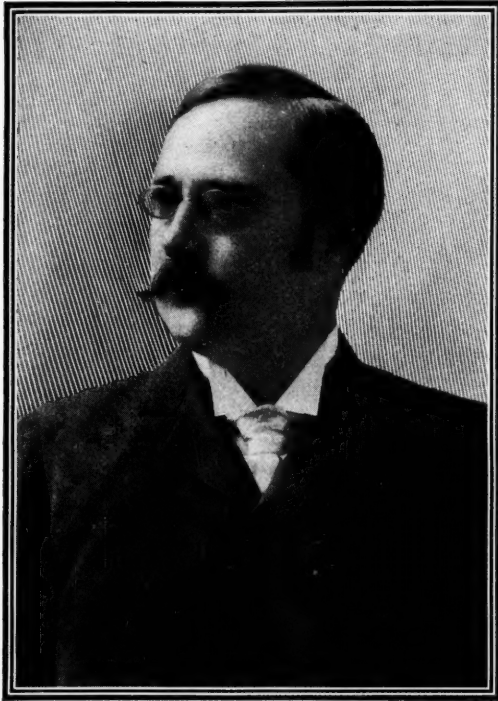
HON. JOSEPH W. FOLK, OF ST. LOUIS.

in New York affords a cheering prospect. A standard has been raised around which many other men will be glad to rally. Nothing, indeed, has given President Roosevelt so strong a hold upon the people as the belief that he has the courage needed for a period of reform in just these directions. It is not to be forgotten that as governor of New York he encouraged and

approved the franchise-tax bill, in consequence of which the corporations sent forth the edict that he was to be removed from political power. The country is not ignorant of the foiled conspiracy of corporation leaders to prevent his nomination at Chicago this month. Nor is the country unaware of the continued desire for his defeat in certain quarters because he cannot be expected to change his convictions as to the duty of law-enforcement. President Roosevelt has no prejudices against capital, is not blind to the advantages of amalgamation, and is not a persecutor of corporations by reason of their size or their wealth. But the country recognizes in him a steadfast disposition to assert the superiority of the law over its creatures,—hence his strength with the people. The stand taken in New York by men like Mr. Jerome and Commissioner McAdoo will be likely to give them a hold upon public confidence that will bring them further opportunities for usefulness in the future, perhaps in higher offices than those they now hold. The fearless and intrepid course pursued by Mr. Folk as circuit attorney in St. Louis has given him national fame, and has so favorably impressed the plain people of the State of Missouri that in spite of intense opposition it is now admitted that he will receive the Democratic nomination for the governorship and probably carry the State by a large majority. His name has been mentioned frequently as a possible compromise candidate for the Presidency,—all of which illustrates the fact that the country has come to a new sense of the necessity of honesty and efficiency in the enforcement of the laws and the carrying on of the work of administration. Mr. Folk may have some opinions upon the tariff question and other matters of national legislative policy, but it has not occurred to many of his admirers to ask about such opinions. They hold other issues to be even more important.

*Progress in
Panama
Affairs.*

In the last hours of the session, Congress failed to agree upon the legislation that had been framed for the government of the Panama Canal zone, and, instead, followed the plan adopted at the time of the Louisiana Purchase,—a plan employed later, when Florida was bought, and yet more recently, when the Philippines were acquired. In all these instances, Congress vested administrative authority temporarily in the hands of the President. It was promptly decided by President Roosevelt to have the Panama Commission and the "zone" government report through the War Department. General Davis, of the commission, was made governor. On the 19th of May, Gov-



MR. JOHN F. WALLACE.

(Appointed chief engineer of the Panama Canal.)

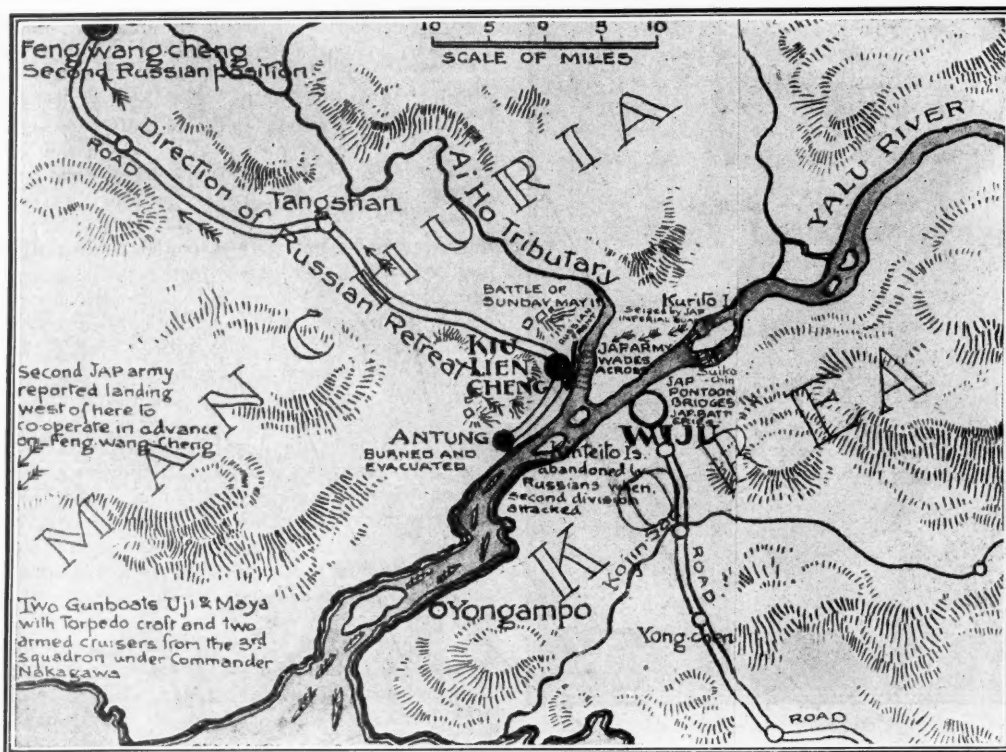
ernor Davis, who was on the ground, issued a proclamation from the "Office of the Governor of the Isthmian Canal Zone, Culebra," and this was addressed "To the Inhabitants of the Canal Zone." It was explained that the Isthmian Canal Commission has been given authority in all matters of legislation, and that the government of the region would be carried on subject to the direction of the Secretary of War. The Secretary of the Treasury came to New York, on May 9, with a warrant for \$40,000,000 and fully paid off Uncle Sam's indebtedness to the French Panama Company. The republic of Panama has also now received her promised \$10,000,000. The commission was deemed highly fortunate in being able to secure the services of Mr. John F. Wallace as chief engineer. To take this place, Mr. Wallace resigned his position as general manager of the Illinois Central Railroad system. His acceptance involves sacrifices, but he appreciates the greatness of the professional opportunity that lies before him. His is now the task of carrying through the most colossal engineering project in the history of the world. The health problem on the Isthmus, meanwhile, is to be dealt with by the best medical and sanitary experts obtainable.

*Japan's
Plan of
Campaign.*

At last, through the tangle of newspaper reports and in spite of the rigid Japanese censorship, we are beginning to perceive the large general lines of the campaign planned by the Mikado's generals. It reveals a masterly conception, which the Japanese general staff have been carrying out with orderly development, never permitting themselves to be hurried, and steadily refusing to tell the world what they intended to do until it had been done. The main features of this great campaign can now be seen to follow closely the campaign planned and actually carried out by the Japanese in their war with China. Four general objects seem to have been in view up to the present stage,—first, the absolute command of the sea and the coast, in order that the safe transportation of the Japanese army of invasion might be insured; second, the thorough occupation of Korea as a continental base; third, the crossing of the Yalu River and the driving of the Russians back into Manchuria; and, fourth, the effectual "bottling up" of Port Arthur,—this to be followed by the investment of that place, the cutting of the railroad, and the subsequent control of the Liao-tung Peninsula. These objects attained,—and they had been attained by the middle of May,—all maritime Manchuria is in the hands of the Japanese forces. The Mikado's generals appear to have thoroughly learned the lessons of the war with China and to be perfectly familiar with the country in which they are fighting. Up to the present, they have not failed in any of their plans.

*The
Japanese
Cross the Yalu.*

General Kuroki won the first land victory for Japan on Sunday morning, May 1. In a six-day fight on the Yalu River, a few miles northeast of Wiju, the Russian generals Zassulitch and Kashtalinski, their forces aggregating from ten thousand to fifteen thousand men, were decisively beaten, with a loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners of twenty-three hundred and ninety-seven men and twenty-eight guns. It was part of the Japanese general forward movement. On April 26, the first section of the Japanese Imperial Guards and the second division of infantry crossed over the shallow channel of the Yalu to the island which divides it, about forty miles north of Wiju. The crossing continued, the Japanese forces extending over a line eighty miles long, to conceal the point of concentration. The Russians made no very serious opposition to the crossing, although their bombardment of the forts of Wiju at long range from the Manchurian side inflicted considerable damage. The main Japanese crossing began at 3 o'clock on the morn-



MAP OF THE REGION IN WHICH THE JAPANESE WON THEIR FIRST LAND VICTORY.

ing of April 30, when a part of the twelfth division, taking their heavy artillery, crossed from Suku, on the Korean side, over a pontoon bridge to Kiu-lien-cheng, in Manchuria. Here the Russians were strongly posted. The hills rise steeply at this point, and the fortifications on their summit command Antung and the road to Peking.

A Japanese Victory.

The action was begun by an artillery duel in which the Russians discovered, apparently much to their surprise, that the Japanese possessed, and were using, heavy artillery. The Russian guns were finally silenced and their outposts driven back. General Kuroki gave the order to charge at 7:30 on the morning of Sunday, May 1, and the Japanese infantry, wading the stream, breast-high, stormed the heights. By 9 o'clock, the Russians, though fighting gallantly, were swept back across the plateau. In this general charge, in which bayonets were used, the Japanese lost eight hundred men. The Russians suffered heavily. One of their regiments (the Eleventh Siberian) only escaped destruction by cutting its way out in a desperate bayonet charge led by a

devoted priest who ran on foot holding aloft a crucifix. The victory was made complete by the assistance of a Japanese gunboat flotilla, which steamed up the Yalu and shelled the Russians at Antung. The latter were finally compelled to evacuate the town, which they burned before leaving. Night saw the Japanese firmly intrenched on the Manchurian side of the Yalu, with the Russians in full retreat. General Zaslitch had been ordered to retire without giving battle. Whether he disobeyed orders, or whether, as seems more likely, the precision and celerity of the Japanese movements made him choose between fighting and surrendering, is not certain. It is reported, however, that he has been severely censured, and that he will be suspended from his command.

Effect of the Russian Defeat.

The moral effect of this victory for the Japanese has been tremendous. The Russians themselves admit that they have been sadly mistaken in the character of their opponents. For the first time, an Asiatic army has defeated European troops; and the effect on China is thought to be awaited



MAJOR-GENERAL KUROKI.

(Who defeated the Russian general, Zassulitch, on the Yalu.)

with much nervousness by the Czar's government. The Chinese are observing the official neutrality; but General Ma, who has twenty or thirty thousand men in Manchuria not far from the present scene of hostilities, reports great difficulty in restraining his men from making common cause with the Japanese. The Japanese general staff has issued a statement requesting the strictest of neutrality on the part of the Chinese; but, in the words of one of the prominent Chinese representatives in this country, the people are decidedly pro-Japanese in this war, and "no Chinaman, except he be some ignorant native who has been bribed by Russian gold, is in favor of Russia." The effect on Korea has already been disastrous to the Russians. On May 19, the Japanese Government received an official notification from Seoul that the government of Korea had canceled all its treaties with Russia and all concessions made by it to Russian subjects. Comment in Europe is greatly in praise of Japanese efficiency and bravery. Some German journals are even openly predicting Russia's defeat and declaring that Europe may have to intervene, despite the official announcement of the Czar's government that no mediation or intervention, either during or after the war, will be tolerated. The rest of the continent of Europe is watching the conflict and preparing

for eventualities. Austria has greatly increased her military budget; the French find in their agreement with England a guaranty of peace; Germany is watching for an opportunity to offer mediation, and the Scandinavian countries are so much exercised over their own safety that they have come to a secret understanding with regard to neutrality, the terms of which have not been made public, but which include the mining of all the coasts of the three kingdoms, —Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

*What Will
Kuropatkin
Do?*

General Kuropatkin's plan of campaign apparently contemplates the gradual retirement, without giving battle, of all the Russian forces in Manchuria and their concentration at some point, such as Harbin, on the railroad, where, when sufficient reinforcements have been received, the Russian commander will feel strong enough to assume the offensive. He insists that the Russian retreat, the different repulses, and even the defeat on the Yalu, were all foreseen in his general campaign. General Kuroki is pushing on to surround the Russians. His advance guard is reported to have suffered at least one repulse by the Cossacks, but, by the middle of May, the Japanese forces had advanced to within twenty miles of the main Russian lines. One division, victorious at the Yalu, had marched from Feng-Wang-Cheng; another up the Liao-tung Peninsula, the third from Kinchow, and a fourth was supposed to be cutting off General Kuropatkin's retreat from the north. The approaching conjunction of the force landed on Liao-tung Peninsula with the division marching from Kinchow is believed to render untenable for the Russians the cities of Dalny, Yinkow, and Newchwang. At any rate, Newchwang has been evacuated by the Russians, and Dalny practically deserted and partially destroyed.

*Dalny Partly
Destroyed.*

Nothing, perhaps, has more clearly indicated the desperate condition of Russian fortunes in the war up to the present than the evacuation of Dalny by the Czar's army and the destruction of its docks and public buildings, lest they should be of service to the Japanese. The "fiat" city of Dalny has been one of the dearest treasures of Russia in the far East. It is the real ice-free port, the business end of Russian eastern Asia, as Port Arthur is the military end. The edict for the construction of Dalny was issued in 1899. Twenty million dollars were spent before it had any inhabitants to make it a center of Oriental commerce. The best Russian engineers built its docks, its depots, and its public buildings;

and its breakwater and five stone piers, crowned with warehouses, and its elevators worked by electric power, made it a modern city in every respect. A number of steamship lines made callings at Dalny, and it became the chief terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Before leaving (reports from St. Petersburg say on May 12), the Russian garrison blew up the splendid docks and destroyed most of the public property. The evacuation of Newchwang and the dismantling of Dalny are an unmistakable confession that the whole of maritime Manchuria is lost to Russia.

*Port Arthur
Besieged.*

By the middle of May, all communication with the rest of the world having been cut off, Port Arthur was practically invested by land and sea. After the engagement in which the *Petropavlovsk* was sunk, on April 13, Admiral Togo continued his attempts to block the harbor-mouth. The most desperate of these attempts was on May 2. About a dozen stone-laden vessels were sent in by the Japanese, and, under a terrible fire from the forts and the Russian fleet, were sunk in the mouth of the harbor. The Russians strenuously deny that Port Arthur is "bottled up," but it is positively asserted at Tokio that the channel is now impassable except for very small boats. This having been accomplished, from some base,—probably the Elliott Islands, in the Liao-tung Gulf,—the Japanese moved a large fleet of transports, and, without meeting much resistance, landed their second great army at three points on the Liao-tung Peninsula,—at Pitsewo, at Cape Terminal, and at Kinchow. The last-named landing practically invested Port Arthur and cut off

Dalny. There have been as many denials of the land investment as of the bottling up at sea; but advices late in May indicated that the Japanese had cut the railroad for some thirty miles north of the narrowest part of the peninsula, and that Port Arthur, with its garrison of from twenty to thirty thousand men and its harbor-locked fleet, was to all intents and purposes besieged. Admiral Alexieff and the Grand Duke Boris left the town on May 2, and General Stoessel will have to take care of himself, which means either holding out until General Kuropatkin has defeated the Japanese or eventually surrendering when supplies run low.

*Japan's
Naval Losses.*

Up to the time of the sinking of the *Hatsuse* (May 15), Japan had lost four war vessels. The severest blow she had sustained up to May 21 was the sinking of the first-class battleship *Hatsuse*, which struck on a mine while cruising off Port Arthur. On the same day, Admiral Togo reported that the cruiser *Yoshino* was sunk by collision with the cruiser *Kasuga* (one of the vessels purchased from Argentina), during a thick fog, off Port Arthur. The loss of life on these vessels is reported as seven hundred men. It is thought, however, that the *Yoshino* can be saved. Earlier in May, it was reported that the Russians had succeeded in torpedoing, though not in sinking, a Japanese cruiser, the *Miyako*. It is certain that Admiral Togo lost two gunboats, which were blown up, on May 5, by mines in the harbor of Dalny which they were trying to destroy. A brave attempt on the part of a Russian lieutenant and five men in a small launch was also made to torpedo some of the Japanese vessels



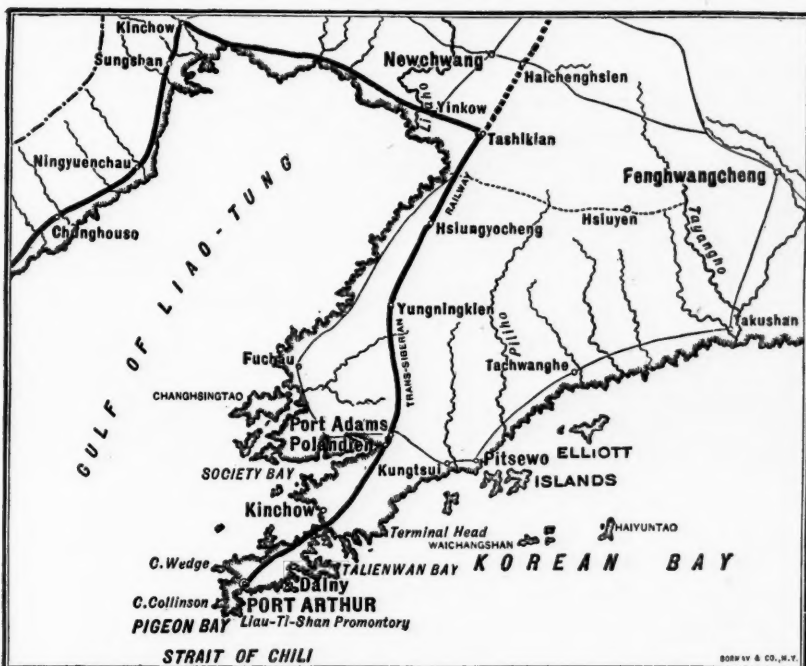
A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE FAMOUS "FIAT" CITY AND PORT OF DALNY, BUILT BY THE RUSSIANS

in Talien-Wan Bay, just off Dalny, with what results later reports have not made quite clear.

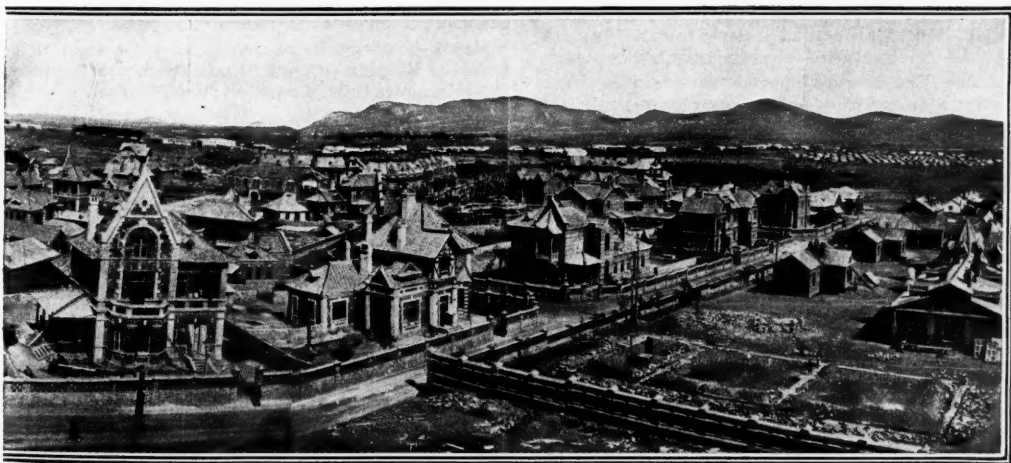
All these
The Vladivostok are real
Squadron. losses

compared with which the damage wrought by the raid of Russia's Vladivostok squadron was but trifling. Late in April, this Vladivostok squadron, consisting of four cruisers, under command of Admiral Jessen (or Yeszen), made a descent on the coast of northern Korea, put in at Gensan (Wonsan), caught and sunk two small Japanese steamships, the *Goyo Maru* and the *Naka Maru*, and a Japanese transport, the *Kinshiu*, a four-thousand-ton merchantman. The *Kinshiu* had become separated from the main body of transports in a fog, and mistook the Russian cruisers for her own ships. She was laden with coal for Admiral Uriu's squadron. The Russians captured seventeen offi-

cers, twenty soldiers, and one hundred and thirty coolies. About one hundred of the Japanese, however, refused to surrender, and went down with the ship, firing their revolvers at the enemy. The Russian naval losses since the beginning of the war are shown, by Admiral Alexieff's last official report to the Czar, to be twelve warships sunk or disabled.



From the *Independent*.



IN 1900, AND PARTIALLY DESTROYED, ON MAY 12, WHEN THEY WERE COMPELLED TO EVACUATE IT.



THE HARBOR AT PORT ARTHUR, THE OBJECTIVE POINT OF JAPAN'S NAVAL OPERATIONS.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 20, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

April 21.—The Senate passes the pension appropriation bill (\$137,000,000) and an emergency river and harbor appropriation bill (\$3,000,000). . . . The House passes the bill for the government of the Panama Canal zone, —a copy of the law of 1803 for the government of Louisiana Territory.

April 22.—The Senate debates the general deficiency appropriation bill. . . . The House sends the sundry civil appropriation bill and the Panama Canal zone bill to conference committees.

April 23.—The Senate passes the general deficiency appropriation bill, with an amendment practically reaffirming the present Chinese exclusion laws. . . . In the House, Mr. Dalzell (Rep., Pa.) charges Bourke Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) with accepting pay for supporting McKinley in 1896; Mr. Cockran bitterly resents the statement; the merchant marine commission bill is passed.

April 25.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the naval appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the bill providing for a Territorial Delegate from Alaska.

April 26.—The Senate passes the last of the appropriation bills. . . . In the House, Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) denies the assertion of Mr. Dalzell (Rep., Pa.) that he (Cockran) was paid for McKinley speeches in 1896 and asks for an investigation.

April 27.—The Senate adopts conference reports on all the great appropriation bills. . . . In the House, the resolution of Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) for an investigation of his political record is ruled out of order.

April 28.—The second session of the Fifty-eighth Congress comes to an end.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—Massachusetts Democrats direct the delegates to St. Louis to vote as a unit for Richard Olney as candidate for President.

April 23.—President Roosevelt appoints Judge Beekman Winthrop to succeed William H. Hunt as governor of Porto Rico.

April 26.—Rhode Island Republicans elect delegates to Chicago and pledge support to President Roosevelt.

April 27.—Indiana Republicans nominate J. Frank Hanly for governor and indorse President Roosevelt's candidacy. . . . New Hampshire Democrats choose uninstructed delegates to St. Louis.

April 28.—President Roosevelt reappoints Dr. William D. Crum collector of customs at Charleston, S. C.

May 3.—"Lily White" Republicans in Louisiana elect delegates to Chicago and instruct them for Roosevelt.

May 5.—Washington (State) Democrats choose ten delegates to St. Louis, seven of whom are favorable to the nomination of W. R. Hearst.

May 6.—Colorado Republicans choose Roosevelt delegates to Chicago. . . . Connecticut Democrats instruct their delegates to St. Louis to vote for Parker.

May 9.—President Roosevelt issues instructions to the Isthmian Canal Commission.

May 11.—Connecticut Republicans indorse the nomination of President Roosevelt. . . . Alabama and Maryland Republicans instruct for Roosevelt. . . . Washington (State) Republicans nominate Albert E. Mead for governor and instruct delegates to Chicago for Roosevelt.

May 12.—Indiana Democrats adopt the unit rule and instruct for Parker.

May 13.—Illinois Republicans instruct for Roosevelt and Hitt, but fail to name a State ticket.

May 16.—The United States Supreme Court sustains the action of the immigration authorities in ordering the deportation of John Turner, the English anarchist.

May 17.—New Hampshire and Arkansas Republicans instruct for Roosevelt. . . . Wisconsin Democrats instruct

for Edward C. Wall, of Milwaukee....California Democrats instruct for Hearst.

May 18.—Republicans in Idaho, Iowa, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Dakota, North Carolina, and Ohio instruct for Roosevelt.

May 19.—California and Wyoming Republicans instruct for Roosevelt....Wisconsin Republicans nominate two State tickets,—one headed by Gov. R. M. La Follette and the other by S. A. Cook,—and choose two sets of delegates to Chicago, both instructed for Roosevelt.

May 20.—Illinois Republicans, after taking fifty-eight fruitless ballots for a gubernatorial nomination, take a recess till May 31.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 21.—The Australian federal government is defeated in the House of Representatives on an arbitration bill.

April 22.—In consequence of its defeat in the House of Representatives, the Australian federal ministry resigns office.... The German Reichstag adopts the resolution of the budget committee granting \$500,000 to persons rendered needy by the rising in German Southwest Africa.

April 23.—Mr. Watson, leader of the Labor party in the Australian Parliament, consents to form a ministry.... The Hungarian railway strike ends.... In Warsaw, eighteen Poles are hanged for taking part in a plot organized by the Polish Separist Revolutionary party.

April 26.—Mr. Watson completes his new Australian cabinet.... The Cuban Government requests the resignations of the Supreme Court judges.... Dr. W. Garnett is appointed by the London County Council educational adviser to the education committee, at a salary of \$7,500.

April 27.—The Australian Parliament adjourns till May 18.

April 28.—The Newfoundland Legislature is prorogued.

April 30.—Municipal elections take place throughout France.

May 4.—The Assembly of Panama rejects the gold-standard proposal by a vote of 16 to 13.

May 5.—The Venezuelan Congress confers on General Castro full dictatorial powers for a year, with the title of provisional president.

May 12.—Joseph Chamberlain speaks at Birmingham on protection.

May 15.—The Austrian budget calls for the expenditure of \$51,791,200 on army and navy.

May 18.—The Australian Parliament reassembles and Premier Watson announces the programme of the Labor cabinet.

May 20.—The Chilean cabinet resigns because of the reelection of Senator Lazcano as Speaker of the Senate.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—France concedes all points at issue in the French Shore matter.... A British force bombards the town of Illig, on the coast of Somaliland, and captures its sultan.

April 27.—Norway, Sweden, and Denmark reach an agreement regarding neutral regulations during the Russo-Japanese war.

April 29.—The French and Italian fleets are reviewed at Naples by President Loubet and King Victor Emmanuel.

May 6.—The British expedition in Tibet drives 1,500 Tibetans from a strong position near Karo Pass, killing or wounding nearly 200 of them.... France decides to reject the protest made by the Vatican against President Loubet's visit to the King of Italy.... Brazil threatens to expel by force the Peruvian troops now stationed in the disputed territory of Acre.

May 20.—The whole South Atlantic squadron is ordered to Tangier, in connection with the kidnaping of an



THE JAPANESE RED-CROSS HOSPITAL AT CHEMULPHO.

American citizen named Perdicaris and his stepson, Cromwell Varley, a British subject, by Arabs.

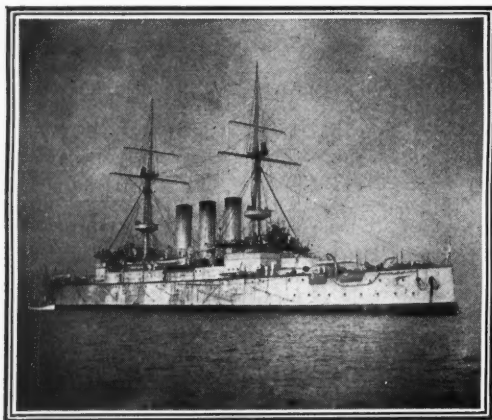
THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

April 21.—The newspaper correspondents credited to the Russian force start for Mukden.

April 26.—The Japanese are reported to have bombarded Newchwang and the Russians to have entered Korea.... The names of the foreign military attachés to the Japanese army are published.... The Japanese cross the Yalu at two places.... Two Russian torpedo boats sink the Japanese military transport *Kinshiu Maru*, laden with stores and coal; they also sink a small transport at Gen-San.

April 30.—Fighting on the Yalu continues; the Japanese have the advantage of position.

May 1.—The Japanese army, under General Kuroki, crosses the Yalu River in force and drives the Russians from their position at Kiu-lien-Cheng; the Russians,



THE JAPANESE BATTLESHIP "HATSUSE."
(Sunk by a mine on May 15.)

falling back, are driven from their second position and the Japanese move northward in three divisions, their lines extending from Antung northwest to a point on the Liao-Yang road and thence northeast to a point above Kiu-lien-Cheng; the Russian losses, according to the official report of the battle, comprise 2,397 officers and men, killed and wounded; unofficial statements place the Japanese loss at over 800 officers and men; many Russian guns are captured by the Japanese.

May 6.—Japanese forces land at Pitsewo and Kin-Chow, on the Liao-tung Peninsula, and cut railroad and telegraph communication with Port Arthur.

May 7.—The Japanese capture Feng-Wang-Cheng, the Russians retreating without a battle.

May 9.—Viceroy Alexieff establishes headquarters at Harbin.

May 10.—The Russians report railroad communication with Port Arthur as restored.

May 12.—The Russians blow up piers at Dalny and prepare to evacuate the place.

May 15.—Two Japanese warships are lost off Port Arthur; the cruiser *Yoshino* is rammed by the cruiser *Kasuga*, and the battleship *Hatsuse* is blown up by Russian mines.

May 16.—The Japanese dispatch boat *Miyako* is destroyed by a mine in Kerr Bay....Japanese troops engage three Russian battalions and eight guns near Kin-Chow, forty miles north of Port Arthur.

May 18.—A body of Japanese troops are engaged by Cossacks north of Feng-Wang-Cheng and driven back with loss.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 22.—The contract for the transfer of the Panama Canal property to the United States is signed at Paris.

April 30.—The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis is formally opened....A World's Fair special train on the Iron Mountain Railroad is wrecked near Kimmswick, Mo.; the list of dead and injured reaches nearly fifty.

May 3.—Drew College, at Carmel, N. Y., is destroyed by fire.

May 4.—The General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church opens at Los Angeles, Cal.

May 7.—Secretary Shaw signs a warrant for \$40,000,000, in payment for the Panama Canal property.

May 10.—John F. Wallace, general manager of the Illinois Central Railroad, accepts the appointment to be chief engineer in charge of construction of the Panama Canal.

May 14.—Miss Clara Barton resigns the presidency of the American Red Cross; she is succeeded by Mrs. John A. Logan.

May 18.—The Western Union Telegraph Company issues a sweeping order that no more racing news shall be distributed over its wires from race-tracks, except in the form of regular messages....The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church meets at Buffalo.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—Commodore William J. Kountz, of Pittsburg, 85.

April 23.—Patrick Farrelly, one of the founders of the American News Company, 63.

April 24.—Henry Stafford Little, for many years one of the Democratic leaders of New Jersey, 81....Ex-Congressman Joseph Powell, of Pennsylvania, 76....Stevenson Burke, of Cleveland, well known as a railroad president, 80....Richard S. Greenough, an American sculptor, 85.

April 25.—John K. Cowen, ex-president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, 60....Judge Charles H. Simon-ton, of Charleston, S. C., 75....M. Gréard, the great French educationist, 76.

April 26.—Gen. Joseph Dickinson, last of the adjutant-generals of the Army of the Potomac, 63.

April 27.—Carlos P. Scovill, the oldest ex-member of the New York Legislature, 100.

April 29.—Charles A. Dilg, artist and historian, 59.

April 30.—Charles Storer Storrow, a distinguished American engineer, 95....Sir Charles Shute, 87.

May 1.—Antonin Dvorák, the Bohemian composer, 63 (see page 750).

May 2.—Edgar Fawcett, the American novelist, 57.

May 3.—Judge Andrew Kirkpatrick, of the United States District Court of New Jersey, 60....Ex-Congressman Ashbel P. Fitch, of New York, 56....Émile Du-claux, the French chemist, 64.

May 5.—Maurus Jókai, the Hungarian novelist, 79 (see page 685)....Franz von Lenbach, the German painter, 68.

May 6.—Prof. Maxwell Sommerville, the archæologist, of the University of Pennsylvania, 75.

May 7.—Charles Morgan McIlhenney, the American artist, 46....Andrew McNally, head of the Chicago printing and publishing firm of Rand, McNally & Co., 66....President Manuel Candamo, of Peru.

May 9.—Sir Henry Morton Stanley, the explorer, 63 (see page 673)....M. Pleske, late Russian minister of finance, 52.

May 12.—Gen. Andrew Hickenlooper, a well-known veteran of the Civil War, 67....James A. Hinson, a prominent inventor of car-coupling devices, 52....George Lincoln Dunlap, formerly general superintendent of the Chicago & Northwestern Railroad, 76.

May 16.—Gen. John B. Sanborn, of St. Paul, 78.

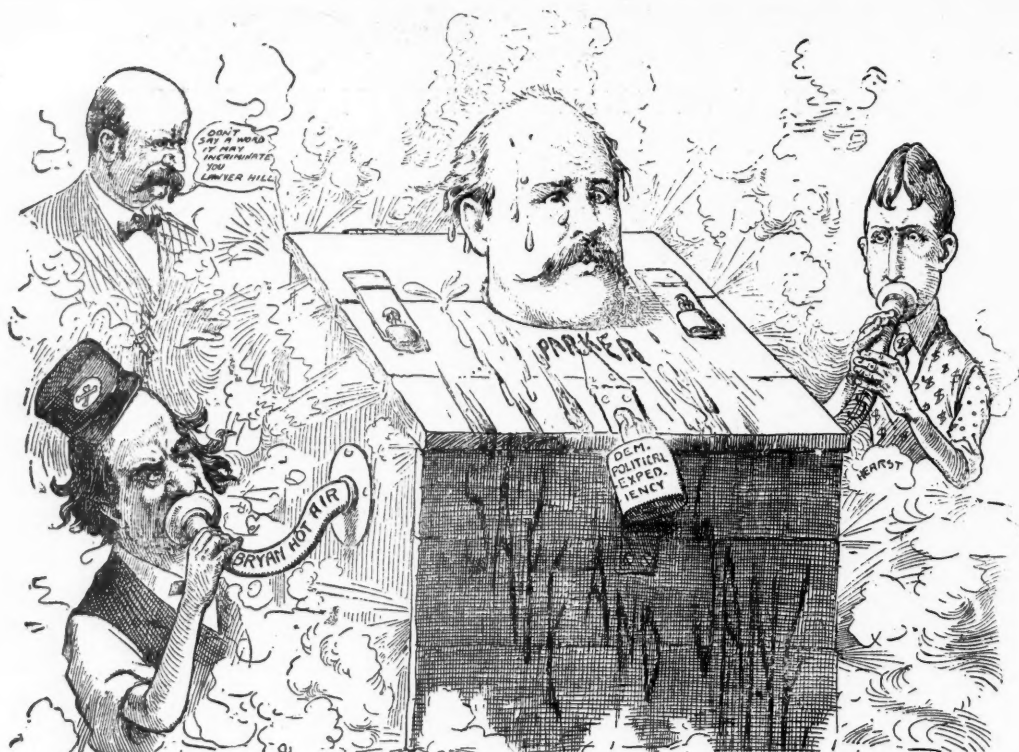
CURRENT CARTOONS,—CHIEFLY POLITICAL.



THE VALUE OF THE BINDER IN HARVEST-TIME.—From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).

NOTHING but the modern twine-binder of the Western grain-fields could fitly symbolize the way in which President Roosevelt has been making his splendid sweep of the Republican field. No old-fashioned sickle for him in this political harvest business! The delegates are all now neatly bound by instruc-

tions, and the sheaves will be duly gathered in, to the strains of patriotic music, at Chicago, on the 21st of the present month. Eight years ago, the bands played "Hold the Fort;" four years ago, they all played "Dixie;" this year, they might well play "Bringing in the Sheaves."



A POLITICAL SWEAT-BOX.

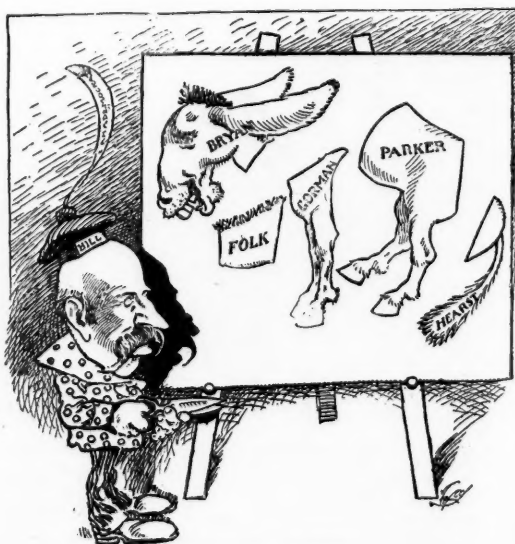
Trying to force a confession from a suspect.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



MERELY A MASK?

A picture of the latest political rumor. Is Mr. Francis, of Missouri, Democracy's real candidate?

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY.

A cut-out puzzle for Dave. Will he get the beast together again?

From the *Press* (New York).



MR. CLEVELAND SEEMS TO HAVE BEEN PUTTING UP A FEW LIGHTNING-RODS. (READ THE LABELS.)
GROVER CLEVELAND: "Who's afraid?"—From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).



WILLIE HEARST (to other Presidential candidates): "Oh, I'm out of it, am I?"—From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).



HOW PARKER IS HANDICAPPED.
From the *World* (New York).



A CHANCE FOR THE ACTIVE AXE OF DISTRICT ATTORNEY JEROME.

From the Press (New York).



UNCLE SAM: "Now watch me do things!"

From the Globe (New York).



THE WESTERN UNION AND THE MINIONS OF THE LAW.

An embarrassing position for a respectable citizen.

From the Globe (New York).



UNCLE SAM (to Japan): "I want you to understand that, officially, I'm absolutely neutral."

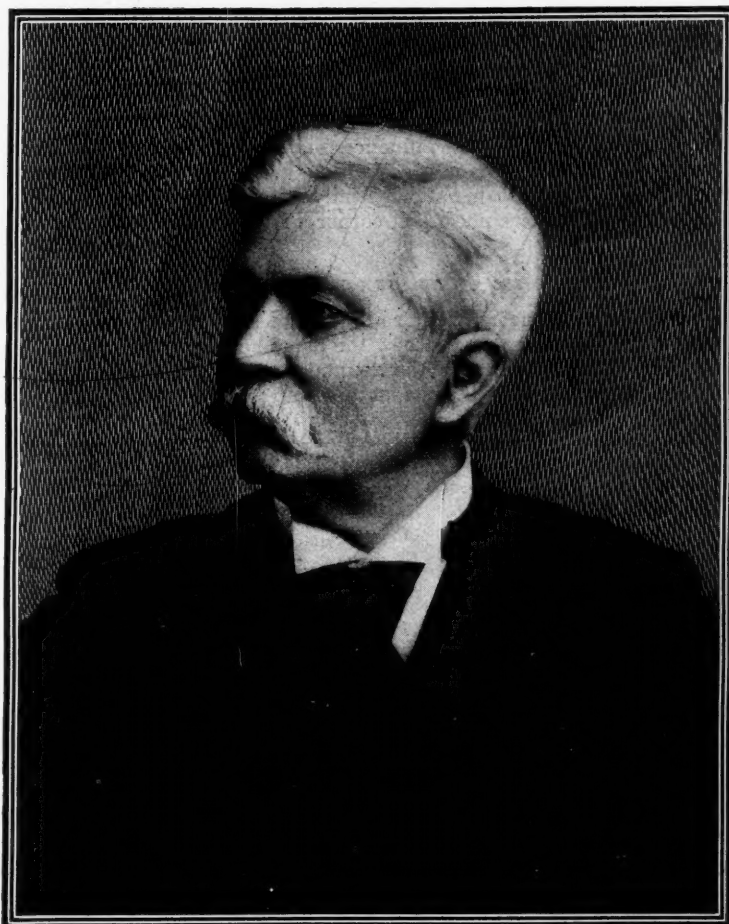
From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul).

WHAT STANLEY LIVED TO SEE ACCOMPLISHED IN AFRICA.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

VICTOR HUGO wrote, long ago, that the man who should give Africa to the world would be known as the greatest of his time. To-day, the world possesses Africa, and no man can claim the undivided honor. It has been the work of many nations and many hundreds of men. Two great names, however, head the list of distinction. Livingstone and Stanley won this proud preëminence, not only by their unequaled achievements in African discovery, but also because their deeds, their unswerving faith, and their enthusiasm aroused the world from its indifference, turned all eyes toward the second largest of the continents, and started the African movement. Livingstone gave the first impulse to this change of attitude, and when he died in his straw hut Stanley continued, strengthened, and accelerated it.

The broad features of Stanley's work show that it had humanitarian and economic as well as geographical value. He was the first to give us an approximately accurate idea of the form and size of Victoria Nyanza, the second largest of fresh-water lakes; he revealed the Congo Basin, of which we had no conception, as surpassed in size and in water tribute to the sea only by the Amazon system; he threaded the gloomy and almost impenetrable mazes of the forest belt, larger than most of our States; he made over four hundred treaties with native



THE LATE SIR HENRY MORTON STANLEY.

(Born in Wales, 1841. Died in London, May 10, 1904.)

chiefs who learned to know him as a man who kept his word, and the relations of friendship and confidence which he established paved the way for the teacher, the merchant, and the colonial governments of Europe; he studied the peoples and the economic resources from sea to sea through tropical Africa and incessantly proclaimed that these peoples were capable of development, and that these resources were

worth the world's seeking; he called for missionary volunteers to go to Uganda, where to-day there are ninety thousand professing Christians, three hundred and twenty churches, and fifty thousand persons able to read; he preached the gospel of humanity to the natives, used fire-arms against them, alas! but only on the comparatively few occasions when the existence of his expeditions was at stake; and in his dealings with them he set an example of patience, mercy, and justice that has not always been emulated. For over twenty years, he saw the African movement impelled, not only by his own hands, but also by ceaseless reinforcements of strong men and mighty influences, and he lived fourteen years longer to see white agents of the leading European nations firmly established in nearly every nook and corner of the continent.

HE SAW THE SUCCESS OF HIS OWN LABORS.

Few African pioneers were so fortunate as Stanley. Livingstone never knew the flame he had kindled, and died near the fountain-head of the Congo, believing he was at the sources

of the Nile. Rebmann passed away discredited because the world was skeptical of the truth he told of the snow which crowns the culminating peak of Africa. Nearly all that the earliest geographers learned about inner Africa was sponged off the maps by wise men of the eighteenth century, who believed scarcely a word of it. It is not clear to-day that the Ruwenzori range of Stanley is not the famous "Mountains of the Moon of Ptolemy."

We can scarcely realize that thirty years ago, when Stanley started inland from Zanzibar, there was a zone extending east and west across Africa from ten degrees north to about five degrees south of the equator that was absolutely unknown except for thin fringes along the coasts and bordering the Nile,—that a man might then have started from the Orange River, in South Africa, and traveled north for forty-five hundred miles through Central Africa without crossing an explorer's track excepting the four routes of Livingstone and the Portuguese travelers, and having continually, to the right and left of him, from five hundred to over two thousand miles of country that a modern explorer had never entered. All that was known of the vast wastes of the Sahara from near the Atlantic to a little west of the Nile was along five narrow routes.

AFRICA AS IT IS KNOWN TO-DAY.

If we contrast what was known of Africa and what was being done there thirty years ago with present conditions, we shall understand what is meant by the African movement. The Sahara may be taken as an impressive illustration, because desert-exploration might be expected to lag behind. Stanley saw, last fall, several contoured maps of a large region in the heart of the Sahara, north of the Ahaggar Mountains. They were the result of levelings and trigonometrical surveys. The cartographers used the same processes to show the surface forms of the desert that our own surveyors employ in the fine topographic maps they are making. Saharan

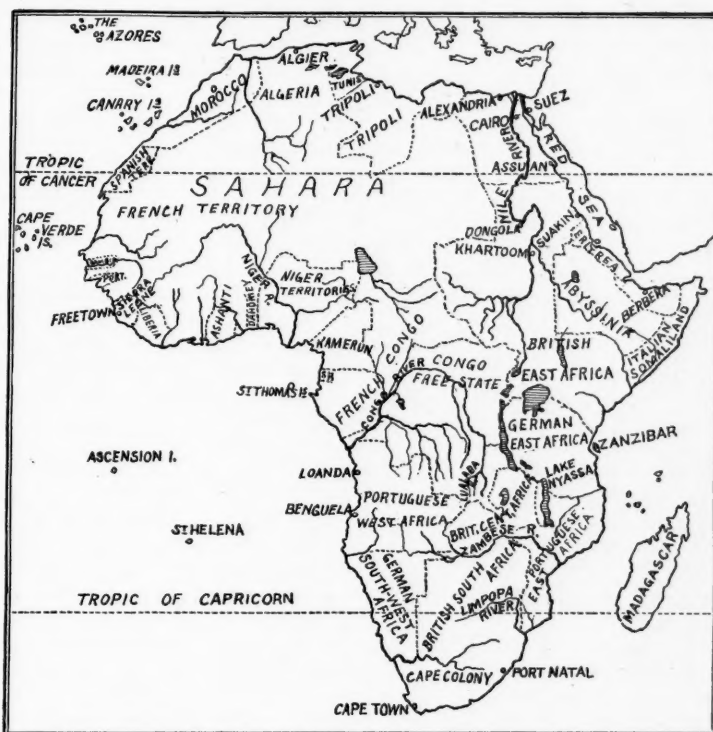


Reproduced from Stieler's "Hand Atlas," published in Vienna in 1850.

AFRICA AS KNOWN IN 1850.

exploration is advancing at a remarkable rate because the French have discarded their slow baggage camels and are employing camels that are specially fitted and trained for fast travel and can cover three times as much ground in a day as the ordinary pack animal. French expeditions, therefore, are traveling lightly laden because they can quickly reach fresh sources of food and water. Within the past two years, they have been moving in all directions, and have found new centers for date and grain raising, and new pasturage for the camel industry. The most frightful waste in the world will in time be adequately mapped and turned to better account than was thought to be possible a few years ago.

When the world first heard of Stanley, no one knew where the Niger came from. Its middle and its lower course was known, but it was believed it could never be navigated more than five hundred miles from the sea, on account of rapids. But Major Toutée and Captain Lenfant have taken the Niger out of the category of rivers in which rapids offer insuperable obstacles to navigation. Lenfant has carried five hundred thousand pounds of freight from the sea to the Upper Niger without taking it off the river, and, with some improvements, it is expected that the Niger will be used as a freight-carrier for about two thousand miles. Captain Lenfant has again returned from Africa with the solution of another hydrographic conundrum. It has been rumored for many years that in two or three months of the wet season there was direct water communication between Lake Chad and the Atlantic, and Lenfant has obtained proof of the fact. He has found that for about three months in the year the Tiburi depression,—a long, narrow trough to the south of Lake Chad,—is the gathering-ground for waters flowing west to the Niger and east to the Chad system. Unfortunately, a series of falls and rapids interrupts this extensive waterway for about twenty miles, but by transporting his steamboat in pieces around the obstruction he was able to float it from the



AFRICA AS KNOWN IN 1904.

Atlantic to Lake Chad; and he says that this discovery will greatly reduce the cost of transporting supplies from France to the French settlements on Lake Chad.

These are merely illustrations of the interesting nature and economic importance of hundreds of discoveries about African rivers that have been made within the past three decades.

Long after Stanley first crossed Africa, the Chinde branch of the Zambesi delta was discovered, so broad and deep that ocean vessels may ascend it and exchange cargoes. It had always been thought that a land portage from the sea to above the delta would be necessary, but since 1889 we have had other views as to the availability of the Zambesi for commerce. It has been found, only in recent years, that the Jub and the Tana rivers of East Africa may be made highways for small steamboats for several hundred miles. In a continent that is almost destitute of good natural harbors, it was no small discovery, some twenty years ago, to find that the mouth of the Beira River, in Portuguese East Africa, offers ample facilities for large shipping; so the port of Beira has arisen in the wilderness, and trains are now running between

this town, Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland, and Cape Town.

GRIDIRONED WITH EXPLORERS' ROUTES.

Africa is to-day so gridironed with routes of explorers that it is impossible to lay them down in a way to be followed clearly on any map of comparatively small scale. They are least numerous in the Libyan Desert and from Cape Guardafui ("the Horn of Africa") to the Nile. But several most efficient explorers have revealed every prominent feature of the wide region between Guardafui and Lake Rudolf. The last great region, outside the northern desert, to give up its secrets was that between Lake Rudolf and the Nile, which has now been crossed by five expeditions from Rudolf and Victoria Nyanza.

We can scarcely conceive of the enormous work that has been done by the army of explorers. Fully one hundred of them have been engaged in the Congo Basin alone. The largest map yet made of Africa was based upon eighteen hundred route maps. The nations that acquired possessions in Africa have for years been spying out the land, and this eager desire to know all about the new territories, their inhabitants, and resources has resulted in an aggregate of geographic achievement such as the world never saw before in the same length of time. The public has seen little of it, excepting the results that have been generalized on our atlas sheets. Many of the most active explorers, like Delcommune and Grenfell, who have traveled more extensively in the Congo Basin than any others, have written no books. Their reports are seen in the publications of the geographical societies, are issued, with maps, by the various colonial offices, or are still unpublished in government bureaus. A few illustrations of this great work of minute exploration must here suffice.

When Stanley began his work, practically nothing was known of the hinterland of the long coast of the Gulf of Guinea excepting in the Niger valley. It was white in our atlases, excepting where place was found for such mystifications as the Kong Mountains, which were expunged from the maps in 1887. For several years, the Germans in the Cameroons and the French in their possessions have kept many surveying parties busy in the hinterland. The Germans have recorded their work on large and beautiful maps, showing the contours of the surface, the forest areas, the savannahs, the plateaus, the water-courses, the native hamlets, and the paths connecting them. The French maps are equally detailed, but not so finely executed. Few of us have seen these maps, and it is impossible to include much of their detail on our

small-scale atlas sheets; but they are within reach of all whose interests may require them. Last year, the Germans issued a map showing the distribution of metals and other minerals over the vast region of German East Africa. The trigonometrical survey of the entire coast line of Victoria Nyanza will probably be completed this year, and it will then be one of the best mapped of lakes.

Thirty years ago, Africa lagged far behind all the rest of the world. Most of it is to-day far better known and more adequately mapped than was inner North America a century ago. Its mapping is much superior to that of South America, excepting along the seaboard of the Latin republics and in Argentina.

PROGRESS OF A MORAL AND MATERIAL KIND.

The moral and the material progress of Africa has been commensurate with the splendid results of the scientific studies. Unhappily, great evils attend all white enterprises among barbarous races. They are not to be belittled or excused. But all careful students of African policies and events believe that the mischief wrought and the evil done are, after all, but a drop in the bucket as compared with the seeds for good that have been sown. Are they not justified in this faith? Is it not a bright omen for the future of Africa that cannibalism and human sacrifices now figure in the criminal codes; that the practice of the demoralizing arts of fetishism is a misdemeanor; that the export slave trade has been stopped; that raiding for slaves in the Congo Basin has absolutely ceased, and is now being suppressed in central Sudan; that the despotism of the Mahdist *régime* has been supplanted by benevolent government; that many thousands of natives have learned that there is good in labor and are working for hire?

It may take a century to even lay the foundations for Africa's future,—but how colossal is the work already done! Over one hundred steamboats and tugs, and many barges, are afloat on the Upper Congo, where Stanley, twenty-seven years ago, ran the gantlet of cannibal tribes. The Cape to Cairo railroad will reach the Zambesi this summer. There are now over fifteen thousand miles of railroad tracks in Africa, and the end of this decade will see twenty-five thousand miles. Gold fields are opening from the Transvaal to Katanga, north of the Zambesi. Colonial governments are experimenting with all crops that give promise of success. Faith in Africa is inspiring the wonderful work; and the natives themselves will be among the chief beneficiaries when their continent comes more fully into the light.

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN AND THIS YEAR'S JUBILEE.

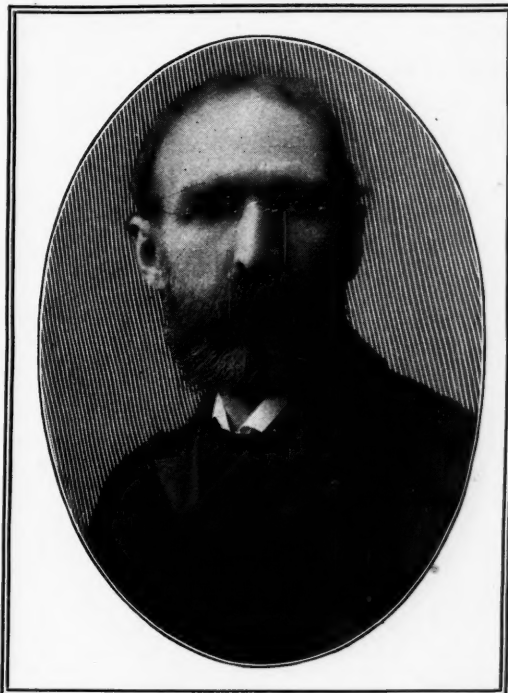
BY WILLIAM B. SHAW.

THE commencement celebration, this month, of the University of Wisconsin, at the capital city of Madison, on the shores of beautiful Lake Mendota, is an occasion quite out of the class of traditional academic anniversaries. Besides the formal installation of President Van Hise, himself a son of the university, there will be an appropriate commemoration of the graduation of the first class, a half-century ago. This will be the first occasion of the kind in the comparatively brief history of Western State education.

With one of her two first graduates still living, Wisconsin can hardly claim maturity,—much less the dignity of age,—by the side of her older sisters, the universities of the Eastern seaboard. Harvard celebrated her quarter-millennial in 1886, Princeton her sesqui-centennial in 1896, and Yale her bicentennial in 1901, and yet, with all the prestige conferred by generations of loyal alumni, not one of the three began her jubilee year with as large a constituency of students as greets Wisconsin on her semi-centennial anniversary. Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are national institutions. Their students come from every part of the United States, and even from foreign lands. Wisconsin, on the other hand, like the State universities generally, excepting Virginia and Michigan, draws few students from beyond the State boundaries. More than 82 per cent. of the three thousand young men and women who throng the university halls at Madison are Wisconsin-born. This one fact that Yale's twenty-five hundred are gathered from practically every State and Territory in the Union, not to speak of the islands of the sea, while an equivalent number of Wisconsin's students are virtually the sons and daughters of a single commonwealth, which itself completed its first half-century as a member of the Union only six years ago, is enough to arrest the attention.

A PEOPLE'S COLLEGE.

It should be borne in mind that the population of the State that maintains this university has only lately passed the two-million mark,—not much more than half the population of New York City. Graduates of the older Eastern colleges sometimes find it hard to account for the



PRESIDENT CHARLES R. VAN HISE.

(President Van Hise was born at Fulton, Wis., in 1857, and was graduated from the university in 1879. He is the first native of the State and the first graduate of the university to be called to the presidency of that institution.)

enthusiastic support that the higher education receives in the comparatively sparsely settled States of our middle West; but those States have founded and developed their universities, not for any one class in the community, not with a view to the creation of an aristocracy of learning, but simply and solely as the schools of the people,—as truly such as “the little red school-house” of the country cross-roads. The State university belongs to all the people of the State; all are taxed for its support. The poor man's son does not feel in the slightest degree that any special privilege is conferred upon him when he is admitted to the university class-rooms; for is it not his *right*, as a citizen of the State, to avail himself of what the university has to offer?



Law Building.

South Hall.

University Hall.

North Hall.

Engineering Building.

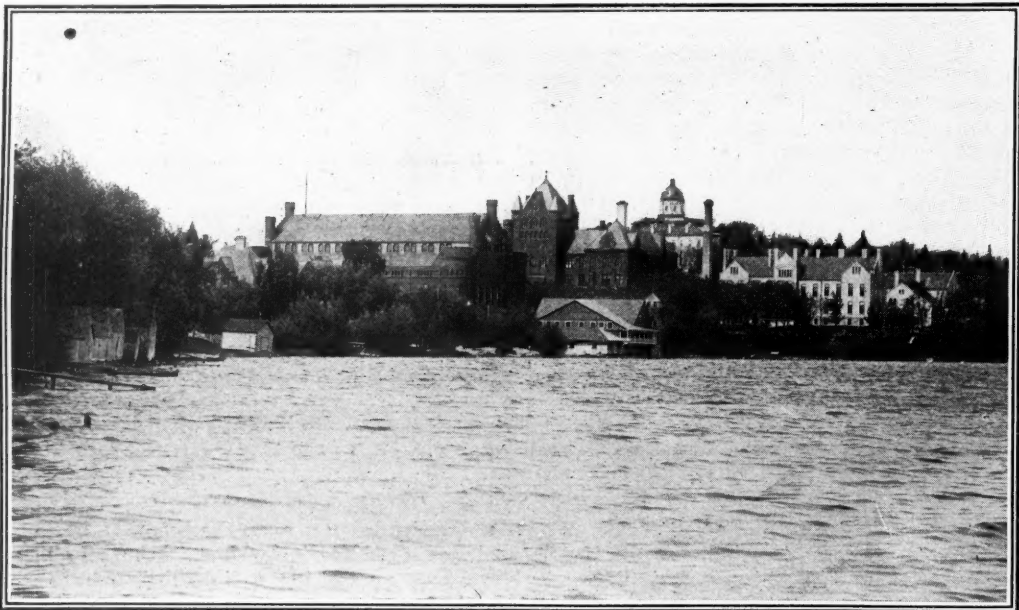
THE UPPER CAMPUS, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

(The grounds of the university extend for more than a mile along the shore of Lake Mendota. The portion shown in this picture is University Hill, rising to a height of one hundred feet above the lake.)

The rich man's son has precisely the same rights, and no others. Thus it comes about that Thomas Jefferson's ideal of Democracy in education is realized as completely in these State universities as anywhere on the planet, and because this is so the universities have a popular support that may well be envied by the most famous seats of learning in the old world.

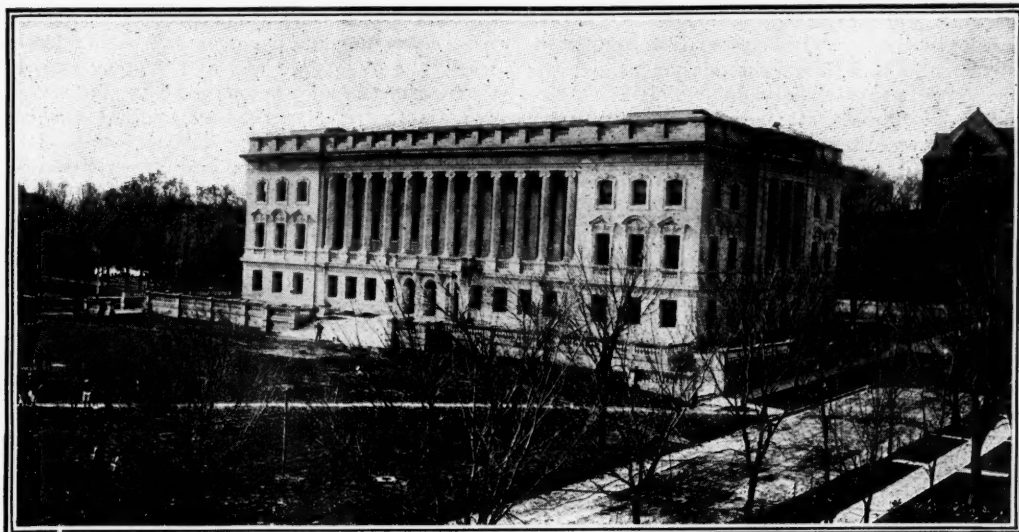
HALF A MILLION A YEAR FOR HIGHER EDUCATION.

In the case of Wisconsin, a mistaken policy in the early years dissipated the government-land grants that might have developed into a university endowment of magnificent proportions. The whole cost of maintenance, therefore, has fallen on the taxpayers. At present, the university is



THE UNIVERSITY BUILDINGS FROM LAKE MENDOTA.

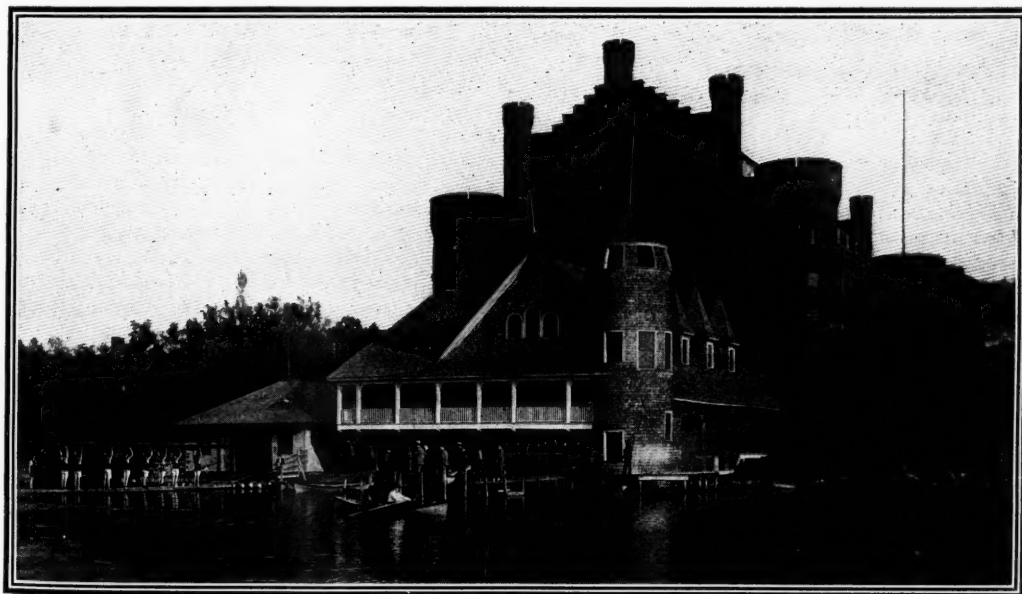
(The large building at the left is the armory [gymnasium]; the university boathouse occupies the center of the foreground; directly back of that is Science Hall.)



HISTORICAL LIBRARY BUILDING.

(This building was erected by the State at a cost of \$620,000. Architecturally, it ranks second only to the Library of Congress, at Washington, among American public-library buildings. It is occupied jointly by the Library of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin,—128,000 bound volumes and 120,000 pamphlets,—and the university library,—86,000 volumes and 30,000 pamphlets. University students have the use of the Historical Society's valuable collections.)

a charge upon the State of nearly \$500,000 a year, representing, if capitalized at 4 per cent., an endowment of \$12,500,000, a sum exceeded by only three university foundations in this country,—Harvard, Columbia, and the Leland Stanford Junior. Of the State universities, only



THE ARMORY (GYMNASIUM) AND BOATHOUSE ON THE SHORE OF LAKE MENDOTA.

(This lake is a beautiful body of water, about six miles long by four miles wide. It affords a fine practice course for the 'varsity and freshman crews, which row every year against the Cornell and other Eastern crews at Poughkeepsie. The lake will be the scene of a brilliant water fête on the evening of "Inauguration Day," June 7.)

Michigan, California, and Illinois enjoy a larger annual income. Furthermore, the State's investment in buildings and equipment for the university is approximately \$2,000,000. On the university grounds, at Madison, are twenty-five important buildings, which house a great number of laboratories, special libraries, and other

higher education, he would probably hear very little about the languages, or the higher mathematics, or history, or any of the other subjects that worry the high-school graduate, but a great deal about Professor Babcock and his milk test, and the great value to the dairy interests of the State of the instruction and experimentation



Agricultural Hall.

GROUP OF BUILDINGS OF THE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE.

(Beyond these buildings lies the experimental farm of two hundred and twenty acres, adjoining the university campus.)

apparatus adapted to the demands of up-to-date scientific investigation.

"THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER" AND THE FARMING INTERESTS OF THE STATE.

The system of accredited high schools and academies, nowhere more fully developed than in Wisconsin, also fosters the close relationship between people and university so noticeable throughout the middle West. The successive freshman classes at Madison are recruited from more than two hundred of these accredited schools, each one of which is under the inspection of the university faculty and has frequently presented to it the university's methods, plans, and ideals. Then, too, the fact that a large proportion of the principals of these schools are themselves university graduates has its influence in keeping the interests of higher and secondary instruction throughout the State closely united, and in keeping the farmers, manufacturers, and business and professional men who pay the taxes well informed about the university's work and needs.

But if one were to ask the first intelligent Wisconsin farmer that he met for his justification of the State's vast expenditures on the

in the agricultural school at Madison. This school, originating from the Morrill land grant of 1862, has always been an integral part of the university. It offers unusual opportunities to young men desiring to become experts in any branch of agriculture, while its stores of modernized knowledge, gained from scientific experiment, are placed at the service of every farmer in the State, through a well-developed system of farmers' institutes. This sort of thing has no place in the traditional conception of college or university, but from the Wisconsin farmer's point of view it is precisely the kind of "higher education" that the State should provide, since it ministers directly to the State's material interests.

To obtain training as an engineer, the Wisconsin boy no longer finds it necessary to journey to the great technical schools of the East. The College of Mechanics and Engineering at Madison is organized on similar lines, and is admirably equipped for advanced work.

GREAT SCHOOLS OF HISTORY AND POLITICS.

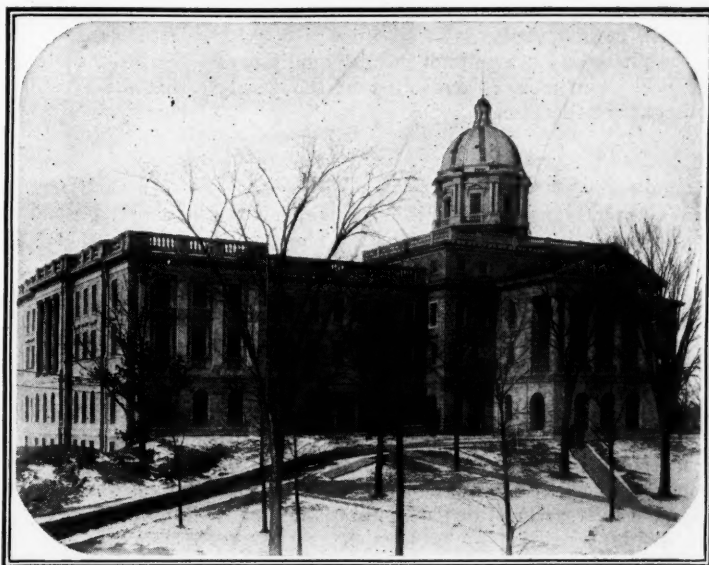
And yet, beyond the State's borders, the university is known for its devotion to pure science and "the humanities" quite as much as

for its contributions to material progress. The Historical Society's Library, by all odds the finest collection of works relating to American history west of the Alleghanies, has furnished a powerful incentive to the development of a vigorous school of history. Graduate students of the older Eastern universities go to Madison to study with Professor Turner, who in turn is called to a Harvard lectureship. Wisconsin students find in their own State the very best facilities to be had anywhere for advanced work in American institutional history. Not less renowned is the School of Economics and Politics, under the directorship of Prof. Richard T. Ely, who has attracted graduate students from far and near.

There is also a School of Education, embracing graduate courses and a department of university extension. The College of Law offers a three years' course similar to that of the leading Eastern law schools.

AN EMINENT GEOLOGIST FOR PRESIDENT.

The scientific work of the university has always been strong,—notably the courses in geology. Professor Van Hise, who has left the chair of geology to accept the presidency, was associated with the late Professor Irving on the Wisconsin Geological Survey, and since the death of that eminent geologist has had charge of the Lake Superior division of the United States Survey. His studies in rock metamorphism, published by the Government, have won the recognition of geologists the world over. This June celebration at Madison marks the formal inauguration of Professor Van Hise as president of the university. He has already officiated in that position for more than a year, quietly demonstrating his possession of many qualities that distinguish the wise and clear-headed executive, whether in scientific investigation or in the broader responsibilities of a university presidency. In a line of succession dignified by such names as those of John Bascom, Thomas C. Chamberlin (also a geologist), and the late Charles Kendall Adams, a man of Wisconsin birth and education now for the first time takes his place.



UNIVERSITY HALL (1859), WITH NEW EXTENSION—TO THE LEFT.

(A corresponding extension to the north is projected.)

THE STUDENT LIFE.

The student body of this distinctively "fresh-water university" exhibits many of the characteristics of American college boys in the tide-water area. Fraternities have a strong hold on Madison, although some of their Greek-letter symbols would be quite unfamiliar in the older Eastern colleges. Here, as at Harvard and Cornell, the operation of the elective system has probably furthered the decline of what used to be known as "class spirit." Undeniably, the student communities of all the State universities are more democratic than those of the older institutions. At Madison, one finds comparatively few of the sons of the very rich. The families of well-to-do professional and business men are well represented; but boys are not "sent" to the State university as they are "sent" to Yale or Princeton. As a rule, when a young man comes to Madison to enter the university he comes for a very definite purpose. The same thing is to be said of the young woman coming to Madison, for the university, like her sister institutions in the middle West, is coeducational. Living expenses are decidedly lower at Madison than at any of the great Eastern colleges or technical schools.

In athletics, Wisconsin is somewhat in advance of most of the other State universities. Hers is the only rowing crew west of the Alleghanies that has challenged the supremacy of

the tide-water college crews in recent years. Cornell, Pennsylvania, and Columbia can testify to the pluck and brawn and staying qualities of the Wisconsin men, as exhibited in the yearly contest over the Poughkeepsie course.

THE JOINT DEBATES.

One form of student competition, however, has a preëminence at Madison to which even athletics has been forced to yield. The annual joint debate between representative teams of the two rival literary societies is an event in the university world with which nothing on the calendars of Yale or Harvard or Columbia is at all comparable. A full year is spent in preparation for this contest. The debaters are "in training" throughout this period,—like the members of the Yale football eleven,—and the amount of research involved would suffice to prepare a "merger" case for argument before the Supreme Court. Questions of public interest in the field of politics or economics are usually chosen, and the fact that the whole university

community is in suspense, as it were, until the last speaker has had his say and the judges have rendered their decision is only another evidence that the Western student takes himself very seriously.

DISTINGUISHED ALUMNI.

In such an atmosphere men who have since rendered good service to their State and their country passed their impressionable years,—John C. Spooner, the brilliant and vigorous leader of the United States Senate; former Senator and Secretary of the Interior William F. Vilas; Gov. Robert M. La Follette, who years ago won a reputation in Congress as one of the ablest speakers on the Republican side of the House. The university's graduates are well represented in every Congressional delegation that Wisconsin sends to Washington, in each successive legislature of the State, and on the bench. Can the people of Wisconsin spend their half-million a year in any way that will yield richer returns to the civic life of the commonwealth?

SENDING A SON TO COLLEGE.

BY CHARLES F. THWING, LL.D.

(President of Western Reserve University and Adelbert College, Cleveland.)

IT may be confessed at once that certain parents are in grave doubt about sending a son to college. The parents who are in grave doubt are not usually those who are directly touched by the nobler academic tradition. They are those who are moved immediately and powerfully by the noises and extravagances of the college campus. The athletic interests of the college make to them an appeal, but the appeal is not one favoring a higher education. The declensions of the nouns of football and of baseball represent the more conspicuous elements of the grammar of college life, as this grammar is printed in the newspapers. Such statements rather repel from than win many homes to the college. The badness, too, and whatever there is of good in what is known as hazing offers an appeal forbidding and irritating. The general air of carelessness or of indolence which rests with delightful jauntiness on the shoulders of some college students not infrequently arouses a feeling of disgust in the souls of many fathers and mothers. The contrast existing between the steadiness of labor, the regularity of service, and the general experiences of the life of the

young boy engaged in business, and the freedom of life,—a freedom which is often sadly abused,—of the college years is mightily significant to the heart of many a parent. All these conditions, either direct or atmospheric, existing with greater or less impressiveness in all colleges, serve to cause the parent who may lack a large experience with life's phenomena to say that his boy, at least, shall have no part in any such nonsense and outlandishness. Life is too short, work too serious, money too costly, to permit him to send his son to an institution which allows such practices and which tolerates such conditions.

One must not be reluctant to confess that parents do have not a little ground for drawing such inferences. The student does not make a worthy appeal to the community when he is in undress uniform. It should, however, be acknowledged that the community usually prefers to see the student in undress uniform, as it also may be said that at certain times the student himself prefers to be seen in undress uniform. This uniform, as manifest in the baggy football trousers and the medieval headgear of both baseball

and football, is far more picturesque than the scholar's cap and gown.

Yet there is an interpretation of academic conditions which some parents are inclined to make of quite another sort. The parents who make an utterly different interpretation are usually those who are willing to recognize that the university is still in its storm-and-stress period. They know that the golden age lies not only ahead, but far ahead. They appreciate the fact that youth has its time of play, and that into the time of play it is well for much,—of course, not too much,—play to come. They know that the American college cannot hope for development altogether different from the development of English and German and Swedish universities. They, furthermore, are obliged to acknowledge that many, not all, newspapers whence most people get their ideas of the life, of the college, are more eager for the sensational than for the picturesque, for the picturesque than for the impressive, and for the impressive than for the simple, truthful interpretation of college affairs.

The wiser parent, therefore, is inclined to consider the whole college life in large and generous ways, as he thinks of asking his boy to live this life for three or four years. When in ways large and generous the parent, therefore, does consider the question, what does he find? Does he find that which makes it worth while to oblige himself to send his son to college?

To this question I wish at once to give in answer a very simple but positive affirmative. The reasons for the answer I shall try to interpret.

The college represents a personal process and result which I may call self-discovery. The student comes to himself. His strengths, his weaknesses, his limitations, his purposes, his ambitions become more or less well known to him. I find that the Freshmen think they know themselves. Not a few enter with a definite idea of their life's calling. Doubtless, in certain cases it may be well to have a definite idea of one's future vocation, for definiteness of aim promotes celerity of endeavor. But such definite conceptions usually prove to be false. I have known many cases in which boys come to college with definite ideas of becoming ministers, doctors, lawyers, engineers. The intending ministers usually become engineers, and the intending engineers ministers. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of self knowledge to any young man. His supreme and ultimate choice depends upon such knowledge. His happiness and social efficiency depend in no small degree upon such knowledge. Such knowledge the college gives through its general processes, its studies, and its associations. All its constituent

elements are contributing forces to such self-knowledge. Self-discoveries are of the utmost significance for humanity and for society, as well as for the individual immediately concerned. For no greater misfortune can befall the race than for its members to seek to serve it in ways and under conditions in which this service is hesitant and reluctant. No greater advantage can befall the race than the putting into it every year scores and thousands of men who are able to direct its energies by wisest methods unto results which are nothing less than magnificent.

This self-discovery may not be simply a process touching one's industrial or social efficiency; it may involve a process of a nature more fundamental. It may be the finding of one's self as a personal being. It may be a coming to a consciousness of one's self which is nothing less than revolutionary in one's whole being and character. It represents self-reverence and self-control, as well as self-knowledge. It means a putting of one's self into relationships with other men, with history, with future endeavors, with the world. It means the transmutation of playfulness into work, of triviality, or even frivolity, into seriousness, of rules of conduct into principles of consistent and noble character. In a word, the college boy finds himself. Such a finding the parent may, indeed, rejoice over. In making such a discovery, the college has helped the father's boy and the boy's father in ways most direct and most efficient.

The parent, moreover, soon learns that his son is not only finding himself; he is also finding life. He comes to appreciate relationships. If it is a mark of the untrained mind to see only one thing in much, it is a mark of the trained mind to see many things and much in one. "Why did you send your boy to college?" I asked the president of a great railroad. "Because he will have hard problems to solve. The college training will fit him to solve those problems." The problems which American life is to solve in the future are of tremendous complexity, perplexity, and comprehensiveness. They are social, financial, governmental, industrial. The massing of the great forces of life is occurring in the United States. The continuance of the process of combination and consolidation is to be limited only by the finding of men who can guide and control these great movements. The men who give most promise for such guiding and controlling are the college men, for they are trained minds. They are trained to think. They are able to weigh evidence. They can determine values and assess truths. They can reduce a multitude of discordant phenomena to the one principle which unites all into a harmonious whole. They are

able to detect the irrelevant, and to point out the essential and necessary. They can discriminate motives, and show how motives become movements.

It is, of course, superficial, and perhaps superficial, to say that college graduates have no monopoly of such conditions and forces. Greater men who are not college graduates are found in the active work of the modern world than are most men who are college graduates. The college is not the only force that helps to form humanity and the individual. Let us be thankful that there are other forces, many and most influential. But it is to be said that the college is a force which, added to the natural force of many men, has helped to constitute their great worth. But I am only urging that the more complex conditions of modern life are making more imperative the need of men of the widest, deepest, highest, most enriching education, and of the most disciplinary training. The great business men of the future are to be better trained than were their fathers. As, says Mr. Groser in the report of the Mosely Educational Commission, "It is a general opinion that the self-made rich man, in the sense of the man lacking direct, systematic education, will have disappeared by the next generation" (p. 184).

Yet the father is sure to find that the college will give to his son something besides a capacity for commercial or industrial leadership. This something is a gift which not a few would regard as of importance superior to commercial or industrial mastery. The college will help a boy to a more satisfying life. It will open to him fields of meditation and reflection, fresh and inviting, which once would have seemed to him barren and brown. It will aid him in finding himself least alone when most alone. It will help him to clearer thinking, to purer feeling, to stronger willing; but the thinking will also be richer as well as clearer, the feeling will be deeper as well as purer, and the will indeed will be more gracious as well as stronger. The alabaster-box of life will become to him more precious; and all that humanity has saved out of its struggle for the pure, the true, the good, and the beautiful will be dearer to his heart, more holy in his will, and more effective in and through his whole being. Literature, architecture, friendship, music, nature, will speak to him in more varied and finer tones. The inspiration they give will be more impressive and the solace that they offer more consoling.

In the enriching of one's life a father sending his son to college may give a special value to the word friendship. For it is a word most significant in the college language. I have

known a wise father to say, "I will send my boy to college even for the sake of the friendships he will make!" College friendships! What a world of love, of associations, and of associates they open! They are wrought into literature, as well as into life. The greatest poem of the last century commemorates a college friendship. There are no friends so natural, so genuine, so warm, so true, so satisfying, as those formed in college. In life's failures, college friends are the ones who still love us. In life's triumphs, their congratulations give the most contentment. The father may, indeed, well think of the friends whom he will give to his son by opening to him the college doors.

But the father will also learn that through the college he is able to fit his son not only for self-knowledge and a knowledge of life, but also for the richest service to the community. His son will become a better citizen by reason of his academic residence. I do not fail to recognize that the impression prevails that the so-called higher education may so lift the man above the uneducated that he is unwilling to try to be of common public service. Neither do I fail to recognize the fact that education refines the taste as well as informs the judgment. I am painfully aware that examples can be found of graduates who seem to glory in their remoteness and aloofness from common interests. But notwithstanding all such conditions and examples, the fact remains that a college education usually not only prepares a man to be of better service to the people, but also inspires him with a wish to be of better service. The education opens his eyes to opportunities to which he would otherwise have been blind. It gives to him breadth and depth of sympathy with the community, as well as increases his power of meeting the demands which it justly makes. It not only gives him a richer manhood, it creates in him a finer citizenship.

The father, therefore, who is obliged to consider whether he will or will not send his son to college should look all the facts in the eye. He should not be content with a superficial interpretation of the superficial interests of the college. He should make, first, a true and just interpretation of the fundamental relations which education bears to the higher interests of the community and to the noblest purposes of his son's career. When a parent has completed such a survey and interpretation he will find that in most, not by any means in all, cases he cannot make so good a use of three or four years of his son's life, or so good a use of a few hundred or, it may be, of a few thousand dollars, as by sending his son to a first-rate college.

MAURUS JÓKAI, HUNGARIAN PATRIOT AND WRITER.

BY ALEXANDER HEGEDÜS, JR.

(Mr. Hegedüs is a nephew of the late Maurus Jókai.)

ONE of the most famous characters in Hungarian history passed away on May 4. Maurus Jókai, patriot, statesman, novelist, poet, painter, and sculptor, was born, February 19, 1825, in Komorn, Hungary. His family was one of the oldest and most noble of the realm, as is proved by the termination *y* which originally appeared in the name; but in the national revolution of 1848, the first democratic wave in Hungary, the young patriot put aside this sign of nobility and wrote his name in the simple form, Jókai.

Jókai was the last of the band of Hungarian patriots, among whom were Kossuth, Petöfi, and others. Early in March, 1848, Jókai headed that band of earnest young men who contended for the freedom of the press. They were completely successful, and the first production of a free press in Hungary was Petöfi's poem "Hungarians, Arise!" which was the first trumpet-blast of the revolution. Jókai read it from the steps of the printing-office to the assembled multitude, and then made one of his great speeches. This was one of the first impulses of the revolution, out of which arose Louis Kossuth and Hungarian liberty. It was an awful struggle which Hungary waged for two long years with Austria and Russia, and the vital force of the nation was almost drained.



MAURUS JÓKAI.

(From a photograph taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

Louis Kossuth and Hungarian liberty. It was an awful struggle which Hungary waged for two long years with Austria and Russia, and the vital force of the nation was almost drained.

Kossuth, Petöfi, Jókai, and the other heroes fled for their lives, most of them escaping over the sea. Maurus Jókai remained in his own country, in concealment, being kept alive by food sent secretly by his devoted wife. Madame Jókai, who was Rósa Laborfalvy,

was the best tragic actress of the time, and her name was famous all over Europe. When the revolution broke out, the books of the leaders were issued by the free press and produced on the stage. In these and other patriotic plays, the first rôle was always taken by Rósa Laborfalvy. "Her voice, like the sound of a rich, voluminous organ, drew the spectators, and held them spellbound by her passionate enthusiasm."

On that celebrated 15th of March, 1848, she scored such a remarkable success that the Young Magyar party, of which Jókai was the leader, sent a deputation to express to her the congratulations of the people. There on the stage she received the deputation, and pinned the national cockade on the coat of its leader. At the close of the revolution, during the period of despotism, Jókai lived in concealment, occupying his time with his work of sculpture, the beautiful ivory bust of his wife dating from this time. He wrote also, under the pseudonym of "Iago." Upon the proclamation of amnesty by the king, he resumed his own name, and in 1868, when the federation between Austria and Hungary was perfected and liberty was won, Jókai was elected a member of the first parliament. He held his seat in the lower house of this body for twenty-eight years. In 1897, the Emperor, Francis Joseph, appointed him a member of the House of Lords. Madame Jókai died in 1886, and from that time the novelist lived in retirement in his beautiful villa at Budapest. He appeared but seldom in public, one of the dramatic moments in his later years being his speech at the funeral of Kossuth. Standing by the coffin of his friend, with whom he had fought for the freedom of Hungary, he said: "I am the last of that band to knock at the portals of death, which by me will soon be closed and never reopened."

Maurus Jókai might have been eminent as a painter or a sculptor. He certainly achieved great eminence as a writer. His first work was a drama entitled "The Jewish Boy," which appeared in 1842 and was highly praised by the Hungarian Academy of Science. He was unde-

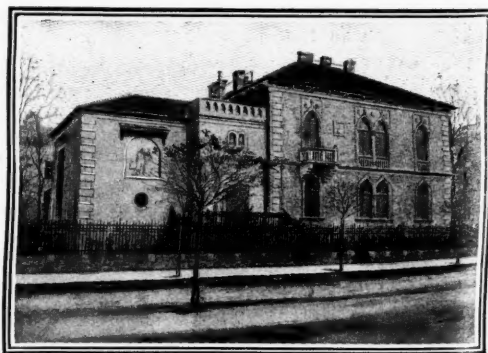


RÓSA LABORFALVY (MRS. JÓKAI).
(At the height of her dramatic career.)

cided whether to make his career that of a writer or a painter. He was predisposed in favor of painting, and studied art with all the enthusiasm of his youth; but when, in 1846, his story "Working Days" won great renown for him, he felt himself, to use his own words, "affiliated to the devil of literature." Most of his stories which have not national themes for their subject treat of Turkish life, and they have made his name famous all over Europe. In 1854, he brought out his really wonderful novel, "An Hungarian Nabob," which fairly enraptured his countrymen. They made pilgrimages from all over the country to Budapest and waited patiently for hours before his residence merely to see him cross the street. In the same year appeared "The Carpathian Sultan," a sequel to the story of "An Hungarian Nabob." Into both these stories are woven much of Hungarian history,—so much that they have never been satisfactorily translated into English. It is in these two novels that the great imaginative and descriptive power of Jókai reaches its zenith. He considered "An Hungarian Nabob" by far his best work. A few years later came the novel "What We Are Growing Old For," almost as powerful a story as "An Hungarian Nabob."

In fifty years, Jókai wrote three hundred and fifty-one novels. Within a few years of his death appeared one of his best works, "The Yellow Rose." This story, written in his old age, and with literally trembling hands, displays the same brilliant fancy as the works of his youth. He seldom left home during his later years, or even the retirement of his study; for his books are really the outcome of close association with himself rather than with the outdoor world of nature. It was his custom to arise at 5 o'clock in the morning and work, with but a few hours of interruption, until sunset.

By 1861, no less than one hundred and sixty-



THE JÓKAI RESIDENCE IN BUDAPEST.

one volumes bearing his signature (including new editions) had appeared. After this, from twenty to thirty volumes (including new editions) appeared per year. At the time of his death, he was writing short serial novels for weekly papers and composing a drama for the national theater at Budapest. In 1888, he celebrated his jubilee—his fifty years of labor—and the whole nation took part in the rejoicings, presenting him with many rare and valuable gifts.

Jókai's first work,—the drama entitled "The Jewish Boy,"—was not represented on the stage; but during the revolution, and later, his patriotic plays fed the flame of national sentiment. His successes on the stage, strangely enough, have not been attained by his dramas themselves, but by the dramatization of his stories. The most successful, probably, has been the play entitled "The Gold Man," based on his novel "Timar's Two Worlds," a wonderful specimen of vivid imagination and rich coloring.

Jókai's success as painter and sculptor was no mean one, although his literary eminence eventually led him to neglect his talent in that direction. At the close of the revolution, he

became editor of a political newspaper, and one of his own articles caused him to be imprisoned. While confined, he again sought consolation in the chisel and the brush. His paintings are chiefly landscapes, and his sculpture work, copies from Greek models.

Gardening was the hobby of the great Hungarian. For many years he lived in his own villa, on one of the hills surrounding Budapest and commanding a fine view of the city below. There the choicest roses bloomed, always planted and tended by his own hand. In 1896, during the millennium celebration of Hungary, he won the first prize for the fruit which he had raised himself.

Jókai's powerful literary style is peculiar to himself, and this alone would make his books immortal. He has enriched the Hungarian language with many new words. His plots are mostly drawn from significant events in the history of his country. It was an American critic who spoke of his Turkish stories as "mixed with blood and roses," and it was an English poet who said of him :

"God sent him for the glory of Hungary
And the wonder of East and West."



MAURUS JÓKAI IN THE ROSE GARDEN OF HIS VILLA, OVERLOOKING BUDAPEST.



From the *Graphic*, London.

COSSACK SCOUTS ALONG THE LINE OF THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILROAD, TRACKED BY WOLVES.

THE COSSACKS: RUSSIA'S UNIQUE TROOPERS.

BY JOSEPH A. BAER.

(Lieutenant Sixth United States Cavalry, member of China Relief Expedition.)

TO Russian diplomacy and Russian organization belong the credit of one solution of the problem of satisfactorily handling a subject race. In the heart of the most absolute despotism known to modern times can be found the remains of a once free republic, now utilized in pushing forward and guarding Russia's ever-advancing frontier. Instead of curbing the turbulent Cossack tribes when she absorbed them, Russia has, by fostering their warlike spirit, turned them into an ever-ready, self-trained advance guard for her enormous empire.

The derivation of their name sheds light upon their origin and early history. "Cossack" is of Asiatic origin, and formerly signified robber or

freebooter. They sprang from bands of military adventurers, who, upon the death of Genghis Khan, mingled with the bands of Tartars,—remnants of his invading host,—and settled on the banks of the Dnieper, or in the marshes of the Don and the Volga. In the fourteenth century, these bands had formed themselves into two republics, and continued to harry the frontiers of Russia and Poland, or, as pirates, to ravage the shores of the Black Sea.

The confederation on the Don was subdued, in 1577, by Ivan the Terrible, who, when they demanded that a chief be appointed, gave them his heir apparent as *ataman*, or *hetman*. The confederation broke up: one band conquered

Siberia and presented it to the Czar; others settled on the Caspian frontier. Revolts occurred from time to time among those that remained, and numbers were deported to colonize the frontiers as they were successfully pushed forward.

The confederation on the Dnieper was an ally, in turn, of Russia, Lithuania, and Poland. The latter nation held them in subjection for some time, but in 1648 they threw off the yoke and became part of Russia. Their pastime was murder, their occupation war,—from the thirteenth century to the beginning of the eighteenth, the steppes of southern Russia were red with blood or blackened by the smoke of burning villages. When a chance for plunder presented itself, they offered their services to the neighboring states; when no outside foe was at hand, they turned their sword upon their kinsmen from mere lust of slaughter.

Pillaging, marauding, killing, these red wolves of the south were not quieted till Catherine the Great transplanted their ferocious energies to the Turkish frontier, in the Caucasus. As the frontier was pushed eastward to the Pacific and southeast toward India, entire towns, from the head-man down to the dogs and the cats, were transplanted into the new territory. These were formed into the tribes of Cossacks that take their names from the districts in which they were settled. The benevolent Czar permits all Cossacks to hold the land which they have cleared, settled upon, and defended against his enemies, merely asking in return universal service in the Russian army. This land is redistributed every six years, to keep pace with the change of population

TRAINING AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE SERVICE.

Every Cossack is required to serve the Little Father twenty-four years,—three years in the Preparatory Class, twelve years in the Field Class, five years in the Reserve, and four years in the *Opoltchenié*. His training begins in his infancy. When forty days old, his mother takes him to the church, for the prayer of purification. When she returns, the father meets her on the threshold, takes the child, buckles a sword about his waist, and hands him back, congratulating the mother on having given birth to a Cossack. The cradle-songs by which the child is lulled to sleep are recitals of feats of arms of border warfare. At the age of three, he is taught to sit astride a horse; at five, he appears on the street on horseback, and joins with his young comrades in the mounted games. As he develops, the tribal traditions are ingrafted in his mind. They form the chief part of his education,—beyond his plow, he

knows of nothing but service in the army and war.

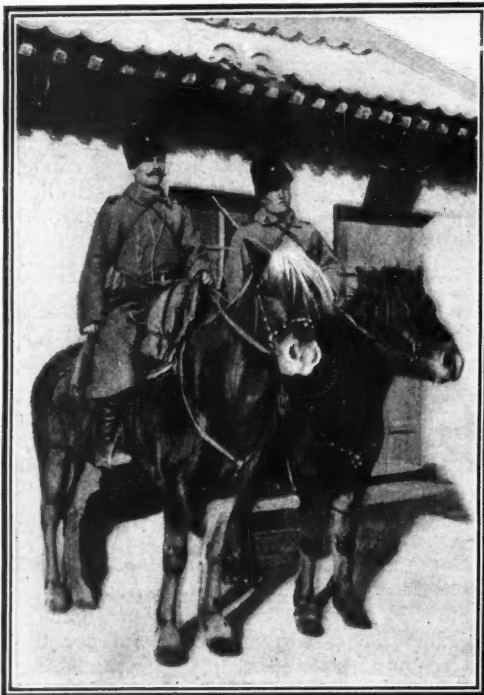
At the age of eighteen, he is enrolled and enters the Preparatory Class. The first year he renders no service, merely providing himself with a horse and all of his equipment, except his rifle, which is furnished by the government. In the autumn of the second year, his training begins, and is continued during the third, the man remaining in his own village. In the January following his third year, he enters the Field Class. The Field Class is divided into three periods, of four years each. While in the first period, he serves in one of the regiments or batteries that are maintained in peace. During the second period, he is considered on furlough, and must keep his equipment and horse in readiness for service. During the third, he merely keeps his equipment in order, the horse not being required. During each of the last two periods he is called out for nine weeks' training a year, and is liable to be sent wherever his services are needed. After completing this service in the Field Class, he passes into the Reserve. In this class he is required to maintain his equipment, and may be called out for three weeks' training per year.

After his service in the Reserve, he passes into the *Opoltchenié*, where he would be called out only under exceptional circumstances. Here he completes his twenty-four years' service, and is then free from all military liability. If he is called out in time of war, or is in service at the outbreak of hostilities, he must serve as long as he is wanted. This service is universal, the few who are exempt being the sole supporters of families, members of families reduced to extreme poverty, or members of the Guild of Merchants, who must pay a fine of three hundred rubles.* The Cossack receives pay only when on active service with his regiment, and then the princely sum of three rubles, forty-five kopecks per year, which in the war service is increased to six rubles, sixty kopecks.

THE COSSACK'S BUILD, ACCOUTERMENTS, AND MOUNT.

Much has been said of the stalwart Russian troops, and of the fine, tall Cossacks, with their fierce, energetic expression. Taking the figures of one of the yearly conscriptions for the entire army, out of 214,000 men 147,000 were under five feet four inches, and but 6,000 were five feet eight. The Cossack is slightly taller than the ordinary Russian, but does not average above five feet five as he stands in uniform. Instead of

* A ruble is about 51½ cents, American money, at current exchange rates, and is subdivided into 100 kopecks.



From photograph taken by authority of United States Government.

A COSSACK SERGEANT AND PRIVATE.

fierce energy, he gives the impression of good-natured indifference and stoicism. He is of rather heavy build, and every line of his uniform accentuates his stockiness.

All Cossacks, except those of the Kuban and the Terek, wear a loose double-breasted blouse. For the Orenburg regiments and the regiments of the Siberian tribes, this blouse is of dark green cloth; for all other regiments it is of dark blue. Shoulder-straps of colored cloth designate the various tribes, and numbers on the straps the regiments. The loose trousers, of the same color as the blouse, with stripes like the shoulder-straps, are worn tucked into the boots, which reach to the knee. The forage cap, bell-crowned and without peak or visor, is worn carefully

cocked over the right ear. In winter, the Cossack wears over his blouse a pelisse of sheepskin, and over this a great-coat of gray cloth, with a hood. The collar has two patches of cloth of the same color as the tribal facings. There are no buttons on his coat or blouse, hooks being used instead. With the overcoat, —and for full dress, with his blouse,—he wears a fur cap, *papakha*, much like a small busby. In summer, he has a cotton blouse, which is worn as a field uniform. In the China Relief Expedition this was of white, but it presented so conspicuous a target that the Russian Government has since changed the white to a light gray.

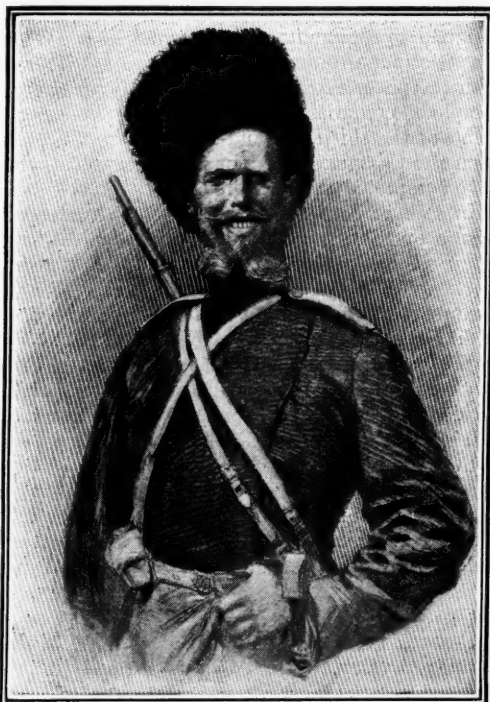
The Cossacks of the Kuban and the Terek still wear the native Caucasian dress. This consists of a black *tcherkesska*, with red or blue shoulder-straps, a red or blue *besmet* and trousers, knee boots, and black conical sheepskin cap, with red or blue top. For winter, a felt coat and a fur cloak are added. The *tcherkesska* is a close-fitting coat reaching below the knees, with cases on each side of the breast for cartridges. The *besmet* is a close-fitting waistcoat, such as was formerly worn by the Tartar tribes.

The Cossack is armed with a curved sword, or *shaska*, 3 feet 4 inches long, made without a guard. He carries a rifle slung behind his back, muzzle up, and a bayonet outside the sword scabbard. Noncommissioned officers carry



From photograph taken by authority of United States Government.

A COSSACK SERGEANT, SHOWING HORSE, SADDLE, AND ARRANGEMENT OF PACK.

From *L'Illustration*, Paris.

A TYPICAL COSSACK OF THE URALS.

Smith & Wesson revolvers. The Cossack wears no spurs, but carries a heavy whip instead. He has no "bright" parts in his equipment, his scabbard is of wood covered with leather, his rifle is carried in an oilcloth case, and his horse's bit is generally rusty. The men in the front rank are also armed with vicious-looking lances 9 feet long, without pennons. Their saddlery is plain and serviceable. The bridle is simple,—a light bridoon, or snaffle-bit, on a plain headstall. It is entirely sewed together, no buckles being used. On the horse's back are placed four felt pads, and over them a leather cover with shoe-pockets in it. The saddle is low, with two girths. Over it is placed a high, padded leather cushion. Everything is strapped together with a surcingle. There are wallets on the pommel, and a leather valise on the cantle. On top of the valise is strapped a blanket-roll, the near end of which is thrust into the mess tin. When packed for the field, the soldier can carry three days' rations on his horse.

The Cossack sits perched high up on the saddle cushion, and may be said to "ride his saddle instead of his horse." His mount is a small, scrubby, ewe-necked animal, with no pretension to beauty, but with a toughness and endurance

that rivals that of our Western cow-pony. It is not so fast as the broncho, but is stronger, and its "rustling" powers, sharpened by the scarcity of pasturage on the Siberian waste, are simply marvelous. Anything put in front of it is fodder. One squadron in Peking, finding itself out of forage, fed its horses the wisdom of the Chinese sages with the rice-straw paper leaves of the tomes of an imperial library.

THE SOLDIER'S RATION.

The Cossack is as much of a "rustler" as his horse. He must be. His ration would scarcely be called bountiful by the American soldier. It consists of two pounds of flour, a quarter of a pound of groats, or crushed oats, and a little salt and tea per day. In war, seven ounces of meat and a quarter of a pint of spirits may be added from time to time, when specially ordered by the commander-in-chief. From flour and yeast the soldier prepares a drink called *kvas*, which he drinks whenever his *vodka* is not forthcoming. When on the march, and the roads permit the passage of wagons, his meat ration is prepared in a soup-cart, which accompanies the column. This is a huge caldron, mounted on two wheels. It has a fireplace under it, and a pipe to carry the smoke above the eyes of the horses following. On leaving camp, pieces of meat, flour, water, vegetables, or greens that may have been picked up,—in fact, anything edible,—is pitched in and a slow fire started. On arriving at camp, a hot soup is ready to be ladled out to the men. For the Cossacks, camp life is neither a novelty nor a privation. In fact, life in their poverty-stricken villages is harder than life in the field.



COSSACK PRIVATES IN WINTER UNIFORM.

HOW THE ARMY IS MOBILIZED.

Of these imperturbable, fearless, hardy, natural soldiers, Russia has, by her system of universal service, made a most remarkable fighting force. The total male population of the Cossack tribes is about 1,250,000. These tribes, in time of peace, supply 47 regiments of cavalry (291 *sotnias*) and 18 horse batteries,—requiring about 52,000 men. Two of these regiments belong to the personal bodyguard of the Czar. All Cossack troops are under the command of the Czarevitch, but have a military administration of their own, and are officered entirely by Cossacks. These forty-seven regiments form the first line. The second line is composed of men belonging to the second period of the Field Class, who, with their horses and full equipments, are home on furlough,—trained soldiers waiting to be called into service. The third line is composed of men in the third period of the Field Class, who have their equipment ready, and, when called out, would have to supply themselves with horses. The regiments are made up of 4 or 6 *sotnias*, each *sotnia* consisting of 148 men and 6 officers in peace, and 153 men and 3 officers in time of war. The three supernumerary officers of the

peace strength of the *sotnia* are, in time of war, assigned to regiments of the second line. With the two supernumerary field officers who are with the peace regiment, these supply an almost complete commissioned personnel. The regiments of the third line and Reserve are officered from the Cossack officers on the reserve list who have completed their field service.

In case of hostilities, the first call for troops brings out the second line,—50,000 additional troops, fully equipped and armed. A second call sends the third line into the field. The 47 regiments of cavalry and 18 horse batteries are, within the time necessary for the distribution of the orders, increased to 155 regiments of cavalry and 38 horse batteries ready for immediate service. A further call brings out the Reserve, making a total of about 275,000 trained Cossacks in the field, and leaving the *Opoltchenie* as a home guard to police the frontier. The only delay in the mobilization is that caused by the great distances over which the troops must be transported, and by the inadequate means of transportation.

THE COSSACK MODE OF FIGHTING.

Cossack tactics are modeled after those of the regular cavalry. The *sotnia* is formed in two



From the *Graphic*, London.

A DETACHMENT OF COSSACKS CROSSING THE LIAU-HO RIVER, IN MANCHURIA, IN WINTER, ON THE ICE.

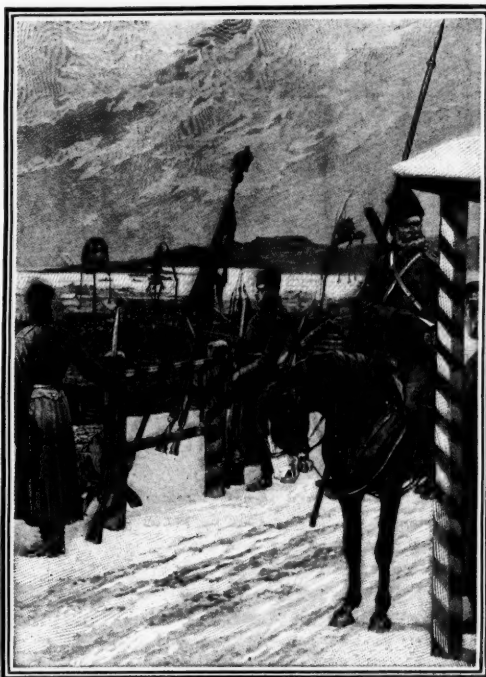
ranks, sixty-four files to the front. It is divided into four sections. The *sotnia* is maneuvered by sections, and on the road travels by threes or sixes. The Cossacks still retain, from the days of their tribal wars, a formation called the "Lava." In forming the Lava, whether the force is a regiment, or only a *sotnia*, one-half is deployed in a single line. Behind the center is a small group of experienced men and sergeants, and three hundred yards behind this group follows the remainder of the force. Should a small body of the enemy be met, the first line closes boot to boot, and charges to brush away the enemy by the impetuosity of the attack. Should their opponents prove only a line of skirmishers, or troops in retreat, the line opens out to three or four yards' interval, and charges. If the attack is unsuccessful, the first line rallies on the supporting group, and the third line charges in its solid two-rank formation while the first is reforming. The first then follows the attacking line, and supports it in any way needful.

The Cossacks are not intended for shock action against heavy cavalry. If a formed body of cavalry presents itself, the Cossack harries it with his light first line, and tempts it to charge. Should the enemy charge in close formation, the Cossacks break ranks and swarm about his flanks, watching for a chance to rally quickly and attack in force. In all of their maneuvers they depend upon their quickness in dispersing without "getting out of hand," and their extreme rapidity in rallying and delivering a sudden attack. When the intervals are extended, this Lava forms a cavalry screen for the advance guard, and, pushing one or two days' march ahead of the army, combs the country as with a fine-tooth comb.

The Cossack never fires from horseback except when scouting in the advance guard or covering the retreat of his own army. When delaying an enemy's retreat, when cornered so that he cannot get away, or when needed to hold a portion of the line of battle until the slower infantry comes up, he dismounts to fight on foot. Dismounted, his rifle and bayonet make him a formidable antagonist. By his officers, he is said to shoot well. That remains to be demonstrated in the coming campaign in Manchuria.

REMARKABLE MOBILITY OF COSSACK TROOPS.

The Cossacks are trained especially in endurance and rapidity. Unexpected mobilization and practice raids and reconnaissances are constantly made, both in summer and winter. As an instance, a Cossack regiment, stationed at Zamost, received orders, on January 10, 1884,



From *L'Illustration*, Paris.

THE HEADQUARTERS OF A COSSACK SOTNIA (130 MEN) IN MANCHURIA, SHOWING SENTINELS, COURIER ARRIVING, AND THE STANDARDS OF THE REGIMENT.

to march to Warsaw, a distance of two hundred and twenty miles, and to reach their destination by the morning of the fourteenth. A force of regular cavalry twice their strength was sent out from Warsaw to intercept them. Despite the muddiness of a recent thaw, and the breaking up of the ice on a river over which they were compelled to ferry their horses, fourteen at a time, they surprised and outwitted the force sent against them, and entered Warsaw seventy-two hours after starting.

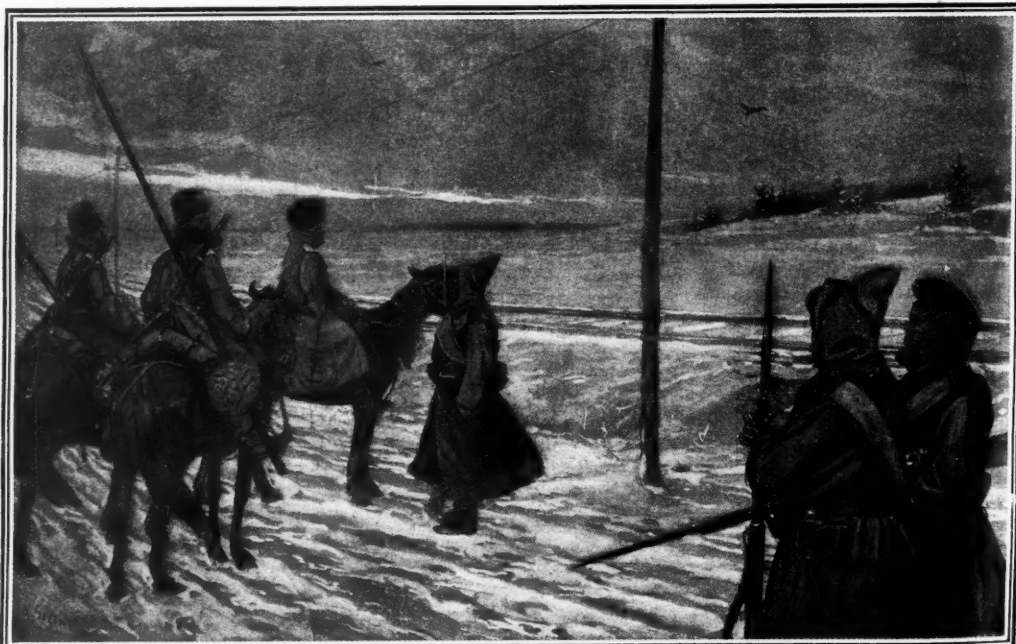
At Peking, in 1900, it was impossible to go outside the city walls without meeting columns of Russian troops constantly on the march,—where, they alone knew. One day, the Russian commander entered the council of the powers and proposed to withdraw the allies from Peking,—all but a nominal garrison. It was known that Russia had over twenty thousand troops in the city. The Russian was asked how soon he could make the reduction. "By day after tomorrow," he replied. Two days later, he entered the council and announced that there were but five hundred Russian troops in Peking. How this enormous force had been moved, and where it had gone, remained a mystery.

THE STRENGTH AND THE WEAKNESS OF THE
COSSACK TROOPER.

That the Cossacks are formidable antagonists cannot be denied. There is, in fact, but one thing that can be said against them. They are ignorant, 90 per cent. being unable to read or write. The Cossack has but two ideas,—that of the force and power of his horse and arms, and that of blind, implicit subordination. He does not think. He has no initiative. He is not resourceful. His scouting is merely a matter of blundering along, in sufficiently large numbers to stumble on what he is seeking. A dozen intelligent scouts could cover as much ground as a regiment of Cossacks. But he can fight. It was the Cossack who ended the brilliant career of Charles XII. of Sweden. It was the Cossack, as much as the terrible winter of 1812, who rolled back Napoleon from Moscow. It was the Cossack who retrieved the honor of the Russian arms in the Turkish war of 1877. The eyes of the military profession are turned toward Manchuria, where he is now to be pitted against the soldier of Japan, the parvenu among military powers. The latter is deficient in cavalry, but has a light infantry admirably organized, capable of marches of almost incredible length and

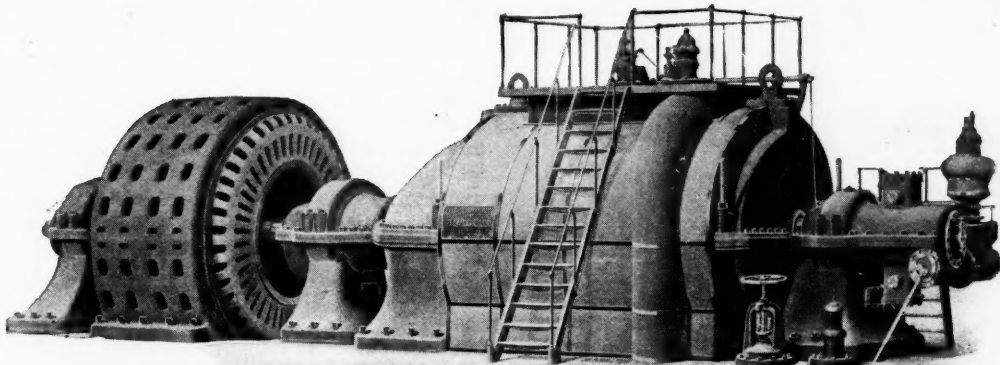
swiftness, intelligent, crafty, and animated by a patriotism that is almost a religion.

During the recent Boxer outbreak in China, an American officer found it necessary to go from Taku to Tien-tsin at a time when the road was considered dangerous on account of reported bands of Chinese horsemen. The Cossacks who were patrolling the road were ordered to make the trip in squads of at least fifteen. The officer was alone, with an interpreter, and could get no escort. He set out, however, and soon came to a fork in the road, both ways showing fresh marks of travel. He was at a loss which road to take. A short distance ahead he noticed a Japanese outpost, and rode up to inquire the way. The officer in command informed him that the road had so many forks and crossroads that it would be impossible to give him a clear description. He offered to send along one of his men as a guide. The American thanked him, and said he would send the guide back by the first escort. "Oh, never mind," replied the Japanese; "I will give him orders to return to-night." "But the Boxers!" exclaimed the American; "the Cossacks do not consider the road safe for less than fifteen." The officer shrugged his shoulders and replied, with a smile, "One Japanese; fifteen Cossacks."



From the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, Berlin.

COSSACKS GUARDING THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILROAD,—AN OUTPOST ON A MANCHURIAN PLAIN IN WINTER.



A 5,000-KILOWATT PARSONS STEAM TURBINE ENGINE AND GENERATOR.

THE TURBINE: A NEW ERA OF STEAM.

CHANGES IT IS MAKING IN THE ENGINEERING WORLD.

BY ARTHUR WARREN.

IT is probable that the last great reciprocating engine-driven power plant has been ordered. Hereafter, the steam turbine will be the prime mover of the new installations.

The layman is apt to think that the turbine may possibly become the steam engine of the future. As a matter of fact, the turbine is emphatically the engine of the present time. "It is not so young as it looks," said a demonstrator, addressing a meeting of railroad men a little while ago. Its principles are as old as the hills, but modern methods of manufacture have only now made its mechanical construction and its commercial application thoroughly practicable.

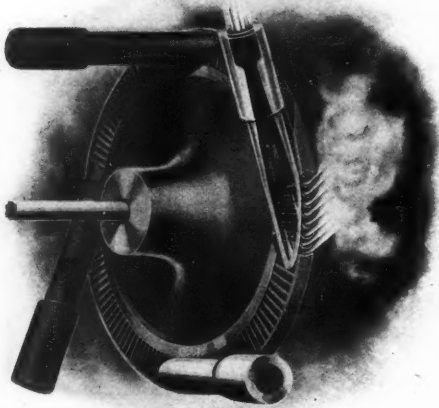
Most new things in mechanics come when we are ready for them. If the steam turbine had been perfected one hundred years ago, or fifty years ago, or twenty-five years ago, we would not have been ready for it. If we had had the means to build it, we would not have had the means to apply it in general use. Electricity has given the means for its widest application—the commercial development of electric generating devices. The electrical necessities of the hour have forced ahead the development of the steam turbine. High-powered electrical generators had become so huge that they had almost reached the limits of practical construction and the limits of practical space. And the demand is for higher powers still. Speed and power here are closely related. The big generators

were driven as fast as the monster reciprocating engines could drive them. When this point had been reached, the gradually developed turbine was ready. With a turbine revolving at seven hundred and fifty revolutions per minute, it is possible to obtain from a small electrical generator an amount of electrical energy heretofore given only by a machine many times its size.

THE TURBINE'S MARVELOUS ADVANCE.

Behind all other forms of steam-engine practice lies the experience of a hundred years. Behind the steam turbine is the practical experience of twenty years. It is in its commercial importance that the steam turbine is new, and this importance dates from yesterday; that is to say, within half-a-dozen years.

Laymen are averse to technicalities, and this is an article for lay readers. But there are some figures that must be given, and we will begin with these: Energy to the extent of 800,000 horse-power is now daily produced by steam turbines in actual operation in various parts of the world, and turbines aggregating half as much more in horse-power are already contracted for. In the United States alone, one engineering company has turbines to the extent of 250,000 horse-power under order, and another has almost as much, with 50,000 horse-power in daily operation. Each of these concerns builds a different type, and one com-



THE DE LAVAL TURBINE WHEEL AND NOZZLES.

pany, in Milwaukee, builds units as large as 10,000 horse-power. The largest steam turbines yet placed under operation are of about 6,500 horse-power each. But we are only at the beginning. The greatest engine-builders are engaging in turbine construction. The signs are everywhere that the day of the reciprocating engine is passing.

HOW THE POWER IS PRODUCED AND DELIVERED.

What, then, asks the layman, is this new contrivance? Stripped of verbiage, it is a spindle, or rotor, fitted with graduated rings of projecting blades, which, under the impact of steam, cause the spindle to revolve within a close-fitting cylinder, or stator.

Between this seemingly simple proposition and the actual performance of work of high efficiency lies any amount of ingenious theory and engineering skill and long experiment. Any one can force steam into a cylinder and make a paddle wheel revolve, but to make the wheel deliver constant power under varying conditions and at a minimum of cost is a problem upon which many great brains in the engineering world were engaged before it was solved.

Let us borrow from the engineers, for a moment, a few phrases which will give a clear idea of what is done.

A cubic foot of water under 100 pounds initial pressure, and discharging into a 28-inch vacuum, would attain a theoretical velocity of 130.2 feet a second, and would exert 16,900 foot pounds of energy. A cubic foot of steam un-

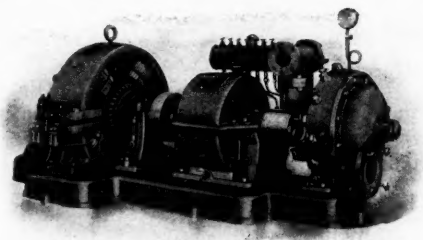
der like conditions would attain a theoretical velocity of 3,860 feet a second, and would exert 59,900 foot-pounds of energy. But such steam velocity would require in a turbine an ideal peripheral speed of 2,000 feet a second in order to utilize the power. This would mean 38,100 turns a minute for a wheel one foot in diameter. But this speed is far too great for actual practice. The velocity of the steam must be reduced as it passes through the turbine. This reduction of velocity also deprives the steam of all power of erosion. Thus, the parts are not scored or worn.

Steam enters the turbine through nozzles or stationary guide blades fixed to the inner surface of the cylinder, or stator. This steam is directed upon the spindle, or rotor. The impact upon the spindle blades, combined with the reaction due to the difference in pressure on either side of the ring blades, causes the spindle to revolve. Throughout the turbine these actions are repeated, the pressure of the steam increasing and decreasing as it passes through the alternating rings of blades, gradually lowering to that of the vacuum. This operation may be continuous, as in the Parsons turbine, or divided into stages, as in the Curtis. The low steam velocity not only protects the blades from wear, but the steam thrust on each blade of a Parsons turbine is equal to only about one ounce avoirdupois.

THE PARSONS TURBINE.

The Hon. Charles A. Parsons, a son of Lord Rosse of telescope fame, introduced the first practicable steam turbine in 1884. It had a 10-horse-power capacity, and was not an economical machine, but it gave a successful demonstration of the principle. At a pressure of 92 pounds of steam, non-condensing, it ran at 18,000 revolutions a minute, and used 35 pounds of steam per horse-power per hour.

Four years later, Mr. Parsons exhibited an improved turbine of 50 horse-power, making 7,000



A DE LAVAL STEAM TURBINE DYNAMO, 20-KILOWATT DIRECT CURRENT.

turns a minute. Soon afterward he had a 200-horse-power turbine giving 4,000 turns a minute, and showing in steam consumption results that compared favorably with good piston engines. Now turbines of the Parsons type work at from 500 to 3,600 revolutions a minute, and they equal the best piston engines in steam economy. But the attention of the world was not much drawn to the new departure until Mr. Parsons built his little steamer *Turbinia*, and ran it at 34½ knots an hour. Then the world wondered. That was in 1897.

The Parsons type of turbine is the best known at present, because it has been long enough before the engineering world to have secured a wide introduction in many countries. It is a horizontal turbine; that is to say, the spindle, or rotor, is placed in a position horizontal to its bearings, like the propeller shaft of a steamship. In the United States, a turbine of the Parsons type has been built by the Westinghouse Machine Company, of Pittsburg, who have made some improvements in its construction.

SUCCESSFUL RIVAL TURBINES.

A rival of the Parsons turbine is the Curtis, the inventor being Mr. C. G. Curtis, of New York. The Curtis steam turbine is built by the General Electric Company, of Schenectady, N. Y. It is a vertical turbine. A third type is the De Laval, which is made by the De Laval Steam Turbine Company, of New York, and by associated companies in Europe. This is a horizontal turbine, but is very different in construction from the Parsons or the Curtis. It is not built in large units like either of the others, and is seldom constructed in sizes above 300 horse-power. It is a very successful device, many hundreds of the De Laval type being used in the United States, as well as in European countries. The De Laval people have applied the principle of their turbines to cream separators, of which they have half a million at work in the United States.

These three are the turbines best known at this moment in this country. In Europe, the Riedler-Stumpf, the Rateau, and the Zoelly turbines have attracted considerable attention. All of these are horizontal, like the Parsons type. There are other types coming forward, and one of the greatest engineering companies in America, the Allis-Chalmers Company, long famous as builders of reciprocating engines, is bringing its skill and experience to the construction of steam turbines, as well as to electrical machinery. The steam turbines which they are building are on lines very similar to the Parsons type, but embodying notable improvements which are the outcome of experience gained in the operation of turbines of various types.

This, however, is not the place to discuss the merits of the respective types of the prime mover which is making so great a change in engine-building, literally, and in more ways than one,



A 5,000-KILOWATT CURTIS STEAM TURBINE WITH GALLERIES DIRECT-CONNECTED TO GENERATOR.

revolutionizing that practice both on land and sea. What the layman asks is: "Why is the steam turbine of such great importance? What are its advantages?"

NOTHING TO WEAR OUT.

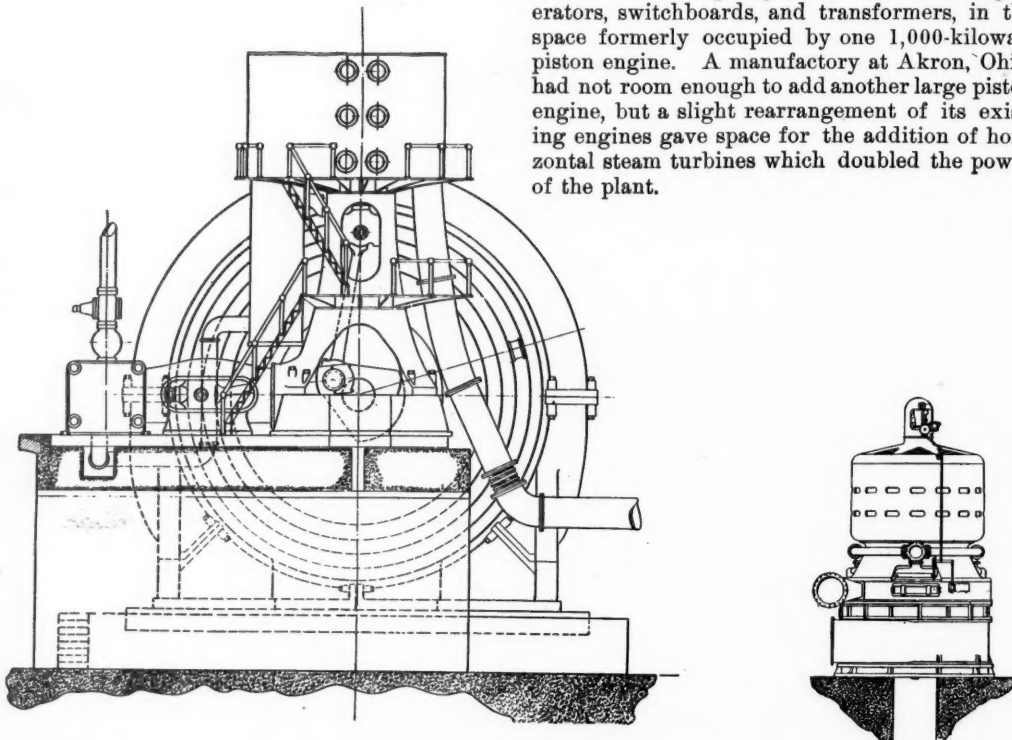
The advantages are many. To begin with, there is the extreme simplicity of construction and operation. Practically, there is nothing to wear out. In piston engines there are many parts that wear. Piston engines decrease in economy with age, but in a turbine there is no such deterioration. The only rubbing parts are the bearings at each end of the spindle. These bearings run in oil, and after years of constant service show literally no wear. Four 100-horse-power turbines have been operating an electric-light plant at Newcastle, England, since 1889, and are still in perfect condition. The oldest turbine-driven plant of the Parsons type in the United States is in Pennsylvania. It consists of four turbines of about 600 horse-power each, driving generators which furnish all the light and power for a large manufactory. These turbines have been in operation four years, and

each week one of them runs from twenty-two to twenty-three hours a day, but they have not cost a cent for repairs.

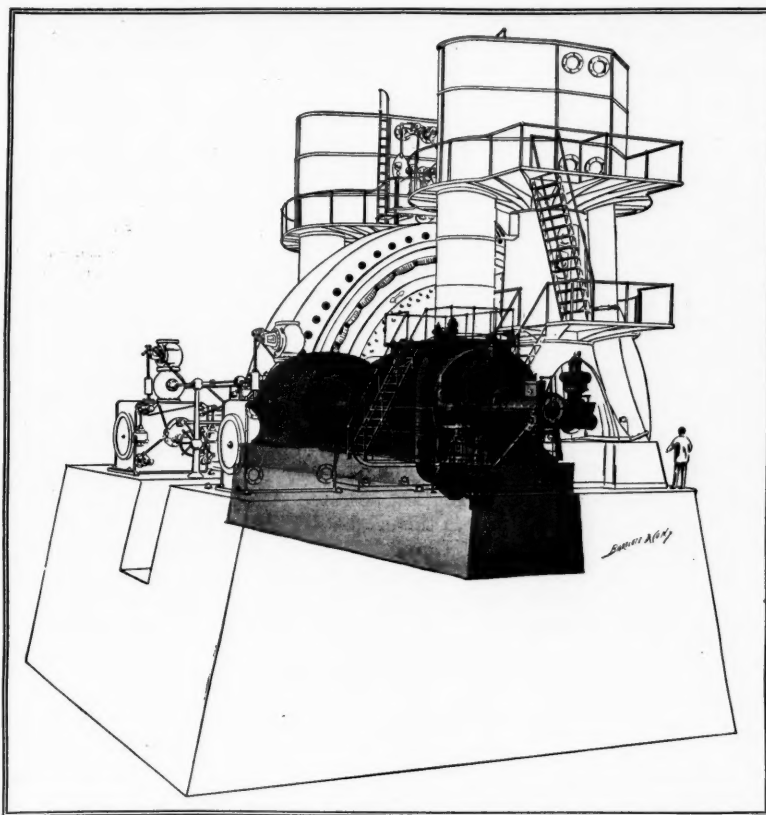
ECONOMY OF SPACE.

Another advantage of any turbine is the saving in space, whether aboard ship or in a power-house. One type of the horizontal turbine occupies not over 40 per cent. of the floor space required by a horizontal engine of the same power, and not over 80 per cent. of the floor space required by a vertical piston engine of the same power. The space occupied by a battleship engine of the usual stroke and piston speed, figuring on a basis of efficiency of 0.85, is approximately 0.75 cubic feet per indicated horse-power. A turbine for a battleship would require only 0.68 cubic feet per indicated horse-power. Every one can understand the importance of saving space aboard ship. But economy of space is no less important on land, especially in large cities, where land is costly and building construction expensive.

A railway company in Ohio was able to find room for three horizontal steam turbines of 1,000-kilowatt capacity each, with electric generators, switchboards, and transformers, in the space formerly occupied by one 1,000-kilowatt piston engine. A manufactory at Akron, Ohio, had not room enough to add another large piston engine, but a slight rearrangement of its existing engines gave space for the addition of horizontal steam turbines which doubled the power of the plant.



A COMPARATIVE ELEVATION OF A 5,000-KILOWATT STEAM ENGINE DIRECT-CONNECTED TO A GENERATOR, AND A 5,000-KILOWATT CURTIS STEAM TURBINE CONNECTED TO A GENERATOR, SHOWING ECONOMY OF SPACE.



COMPARATIVE SIZES OF TURBINE AND RECIPROCATING ENGINES.

(The outline shows one of the newest vertical reciprocating engines, inclosing a Parsons turbine-generator unit of the same capacity.)

The illustration on this page shows in the most effective way a comparison of the floor, foundation, and head spaces occupied by one of the newest vertical reciprocating engines, with a 5,000-kilowatt electric generator attached, and a Parsons-type turbine-generator unit of the same capacity. A demonstration of this sort is worth pages of argument.

Here is a well-authenticated case: a plant was installed containing three vertical cross-compound engines, each driving an electric generator of 1,000-kilowatt capacity. Subsequently, three 1,000-kilowatt units were installed, driven by steam turbines. The turbines saved 900 square feet of engine-room space, and about 38,000 cubic feet. If the entire plant had been equipped with turbo-generators, the saving in space would have been doubled, and the cost of the land, the building, and the foundations would have been reduced by \$50,000. In another case, a saving of \$2,900 was effected on each 1,000-

kilowatt foundation in a power-house by adopting turbo-generators instead of piston-driven.

OTHER ADVANTAGES.

There is another point which affects the cost of installation, and that is the saving in time, which, of course, is money. The great vertical piston engines are laboriously built up ("erected") in their power-houses, and the multiplicity of parts requires nice adjustment on the site. Steam turbines are sent out from their makers with all the main parts in place and permanently adjusted.

Steam turbines of 600 horse-power have been placed in service in from one to three days after being received. Others have supplied their full load of electric current for commercial purposes within a week, even within five days, from the time they were taken off the freight cars.

There is absolutely no internal lubrication in the turbine. Therefore, the exhaust steam can be condensed into oil-free water, and fed hot directly to the boilers. Superheated steam is used without any injury to the turbine. Superheat of any feasible temperature can be used without reserve. This is not the case with piston engines. Superheat, combined with a high vacuum, gives exceptional economy in the use of the turbine, especially in units of large power.

If water enters the turbine, even in excessive quantities, through the "priming," or foaming, of the boiler, no harm is done. The speed of the rotor may be checked, but that is all. Piston engines have been wrecked by the admission of superfluous water into their cylinders. Wet steam does no injury to the turbine; it merely reduces its capacity. It is axiomatic that piston engines show good economy only when carrying their full load. But the turbine shows the same economy, within a very few per cent.,

when running at anywhere from one-quarter of its load to its full capacity. It even carries heavy and continuous overloads without difficulty.

In the matter of foundations, the turbine has another advantage. Foundations for piston engines are expensive; for engines of large power they are very expensive. The turbine needs only a foundation strong enough to bear its weight and keep it in alignment. There are no "thrusters" or vibrations to be absorbed. The piston engine must be bolted down to its foundation. Except on shipboard, the turbine need not be bolted down. It will work in a gallery, or on a wooden floor strong enough to hold it.

Absence of vibration is one of the conspicuous advantages of the steam turbine. One of the favorite diversions of engineers operating turbine-driven power stations is to puzzle visitors by asking them to identify, by touching the stators, those turbines which are in motion and those which are at rest. The average man finds the turbine in motion as free from vibration as the turbine at rest. At all events, this is true of horizontal turbines.

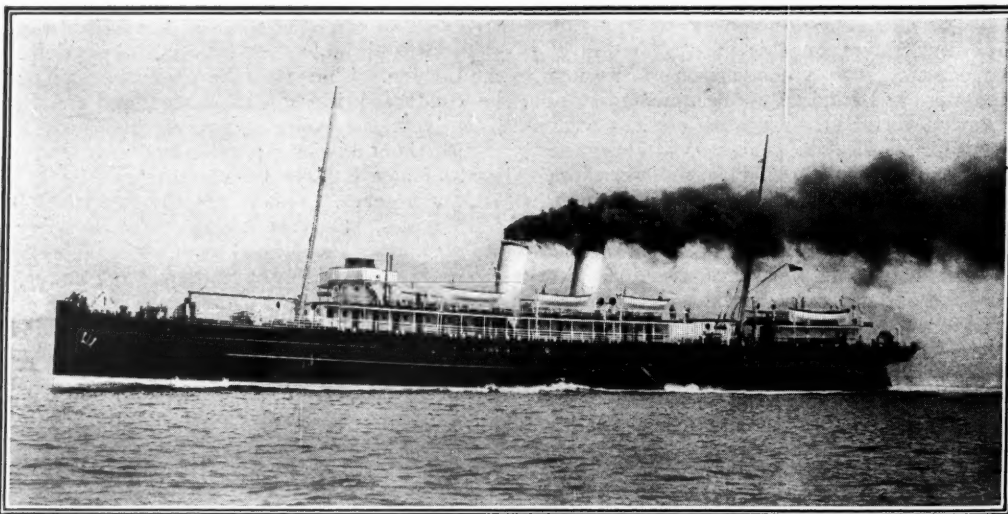
Unlike piston engines, the turbines work equally well under constant load, or with great and sudden variations of load. This makes them especially valuable in electric-lighting and power plants. They do not need watching; they take care of themselves.

USE ON OCEAN STEAMSHIPS.

The applications of the turbines seem to be limitless in possibility. Their special field of

service is in motive power for steam vessels, and for driving electric generators whether afloat or ashore. But when that is said practically all is said, for we do nearly everything nowadays by electricity, except the driving of vessels. Even the steam railroads are adopting the newer force. A generation hence the steam locomotive may be as much of a rarity as the horse-car now is, —in any large city except New York.

It has been said that the steam turbine is the engine of to-day. Already it is world-wide in its application. It is working at the De Beers mines in Africa to the extent of 2,000 kilowatts. It is driving passenger vessels on the Clyde and the English Channel. The Allan Line is building a large turbine steamer for the mail service between Great Britain and Canada. The two new 25-knot Cunarders are to be turbine driven. There will be 60,000 horse-power in each ship. The highest-powered steamship ever built heretofore is the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, of the North German Lloyd. This vessel has reciprocating engines of 40,000 horse-power. The significance of the Cunard departure must be apparent to every one. And the comfort of ocean travelers will be vastly increased by the absence of the vibrations caused by piston engines. The newest ocean-going steam yachts are turbine-driven. Turbine torpedo-boats are no longer novelties. The great naval powers are still experimenting, but merchant shipowners have gone far beyond experiment, and manufacturers in all countries are installing turbines as fast as they can get them.



From the *Scientific American*.

THE NEW TURBINE PASSENGER STEAMER, "THE QUEEN," USED ON THE ENGLISH CHANNEL.

WITH ELECTRIC GENERATORS.

In London, the Underground Electric Railway Company has ordered 60,000 horse-power in eight turbines; the Metropolitan Railway, 14,000 horse-power. The city of Liverpool has ordered 4,000 horse-power in turbines; and Brighton, 7,500 horse-power. One company, near Glasgow, is putting down turbines to the extent of 16,000 horse-power; another, in Yorkshire, 6,000; and the town council of Harrogate, 1,000, for lighting their attractive town. Turbines to the extent of 4,000 horse-power are ordered for supplying the electric current to tram lines near London. Nearly all of these turbines are horizontal, of Parsons or modified Parsons type. In Chicago, the Commonwealth Electric Company has been using a big Curtis turbine since October 2, 1903. This turbine is rated at 5,000-kilowatt capacity,—about 6,700 horse-power,—making 500 revolutions per minute, at a usual pressure of 185 pounds. Two other turbines of the same make and capacity have also been installed, and the station is so planned that it can eventually contain fourteen turbine units, vertical or horizontal, of whatever type may be chosen. Paper mills, textile mills, and machine shops in the United States are being successfully operated by steam turbines, and electric railways are ordering them for their power-houses. The New York subway will be lighted by electricity generated by horizontal turbine-driven dynamos.

RECORDS OF PERFORMANCE.

There are many records of turbine performance which those who run may read. Before me is the record of a turbine in Silesia, which ran without stopping (except for a few hours every three or four weeks, when the boilers were cleaned) from October 4, 1901, to January 17, 1903. The only repair needed was in a valve which had been cut by acid-bearing feed-water. The lubricating oil was changed only once in twelve months, and only eighty-five gallons were used in a year. A 5,000-horse-power turbine, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, ran a year without any necessity for repair. At the Municipal Electric Supply Station, at Elberfeld, a 1,000-kilowatt turbine, under full load with normal conditions, gave the following results: superheat 26°; steam pressure, 141 pounds; steam used for electrical horse-power, 14.4 pounds. This is equivalent to about 12.3 pounds per *indicated* horse-power. Turbine performance is measured by brake horse-power, or electrical horse-power, not by indicated horse-power. It is claimed that this is fairer to the purchaser, because engine friction and other variable conditions often vitiate

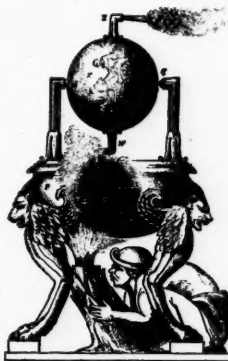
the value of tests that are calculated in piston-engine ratings. Brake horse-power is the power actually delivered.

An American-built turbine, driving a manufacturing plant operated by electric motors, has carried 33 per cent. overload regularly without any perceptible harm. Before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, last August, an account was given of a turbo-generator in Connecticut. Measuring the power as delivered at the pulleys of the motors, it was found that piston engines in the same shops required three times as much coal as the turbine to give the same power.

AN OLD DEVICE WITH A NEW APPLICATION.

New as the layman thinks the turbine, the fact remains that it is a very ancient device. Hero, of Alexandria, described a reaction turbine as far back as the year 120 B.C. It was a spherical vessel mounted on trunnions through which steam was admitted, the exhaust issuing from openings tangential to the sphere. Giovanni Branca, of Italy, invented the impact turbine in 1629. But these were curiosities rather than efficient machines, judged by the requirements of the present day. It was only when the electrical age had got fairly started that the necessity for the turbine made itself apparent. And it was only then that we learned how to handle the material, how to make the tools to fashion it, and how to overcome the difficulties of the enormously high speeds of which this rotary prime mover is capable.

Perhaps no fact in all the record is more significant than this: that the greatest engine-builders in the world, a company whose mighty reciprocating engines are everywhere regarded as among the marvels of the industrial world, have built at



THE HERO TURBINE.

Milwaukee an immense manufactory for the production of the rotary prime movers, which are destined to drive the reciprocating engine into retirement. Nor is this all. For the same company, by the same reason, enters the electrical field. The builder of steam turbines must build electric generators. This is the newest phase of the tendency of the times. For the turbine and the dynamo are henceforth practically inseparable.



THE "OPEN-SHELF" DEPARTMENT, BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY.

THE WORK OF A MODERN PUBLIC LIBRARY.

BY H. L. ELMENDORF.

(Librarian of the Buffalo Public Library.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS, in asking for this outline of the organization and working of the Public Library of the city of Buffalo, as typical of the kind of work which, *mutatis mutandis*, is being done over and over again by cities and towns in this country, chose this library quite as much, probably, because of the size, situation, and character of the city as because of the specific work of the library.

Buffalo is a city of about four hundred thousand inhabitants,—large enough so that the working out of her library experiment has been on a liberal scale, and yet not so large but that it is thoroughly centralized. The city is located neither so far east that untried things were too deeply against established precedents, nor so far west that the tax burdens, made heavy by the demand for those material things that make city life tolerable, such as sewers and pavements and schoolhouses, forbid even a small increase. Buffalo's population is mixed, of every name and nation under heaven, so that her problems are as varied, though not as vast, as those confronting cities of larger growth.

The late founding of the library, as a public library, has perhaps been in its favor as a type.

Sister cities, on all sides, had their public libraries years ago. Boston, Detroit, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, and Milwaukee created their public libraries in the order named, and have been making their successes and their mistakes, one after another, ever since 1850.

The American Library Association was founded in 1876, and has met annually since, winning a body of library doctrine out of the experience of its members. Buffalo, not organizing her public library until 1897, would have been foolish, indeed, had she not taken advantage of this body of doctrine and gone to each of these libraries for something of suggestion, if not for imitation.

Buffalo was not, however, so dead in library matters as so late a public-library movement might seem to indicate. In 1837, one of the earliest of the Young Men's Association libraries was founded here. It was managed with great intelligence and business foresight, and by means of fortunate real-estate investments, and by becoming, still more fortunately, a pet hobby of rich men while living, and their favorite legatee when dying, it accumulated a very considerable property. To show its hold on the community,

it would be interesting to tell the story of the time when a very desirable location, much wished for by the library, was likely to pass irrecoverably into private ownership. A popular subscription was opened, and more than one hundred thousand dollars was raised from more than five thousand subscribers.

Through various vicissitudes, one of which was the disastrous Hotel Richmond fire in 1887, the "Buffalo Library," as it came to be known in 1886, finally became possessed of its present centrally located property and fine building, and the great Iroquois Hotel, which it still owns. The beautiful building was its home; the rentals of the Iroquois Hotel were its sufficient income.

It seems a far cry from the Trinity Church tenements in New York City to the Buffalo Public Library, but without the one the other, very probably, might not be in existence. The agitation concerning the Trinity tenements led to the passage, in 1896, of the act of the New York Legislature taxing, throughout the State, all property of learned, educational, and religious societies from which they received a revenue. This act at once curtailed the income of the Buffalo Library. It stood possessed of its valuable collection of 86,000 volumes, and its buildings and grounds valued at close to \$1,000,000, and a total remaining income, from all sources, of not more than \$5,600 for administration and for growth.

The situation was evidently quite impossible, and something had to be done. The Buffalo Library had been very public-spirited, the community was proud of the institution, and the city came to the rescue in a way that, while it saved the situation, was, nevertheless, greatly to the city's profit.

After a short period of negotiation, enabling acts were obtained, and the whole of the library's property was turned over in trust to the city, under a contract that safeguarded all interests, on condition that the city maintain a free public library, giving it an annual income of not less than 3-100 of 1 per cent. of the total assessed valuation of the city.

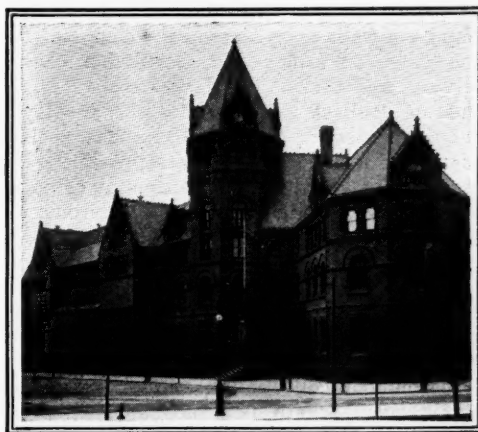
Thus, from the travail of the "Buffalo Library," the Buffalo Public Library was born, in the year 1897, with a great library, a great building, an income of some \$60,000 already in its possession, and the problem before it so to administer all these things as to influence most effectively and most wholesomely the life of the city. The history of the founding of the library is necessary to an understanding of the instant appreciation of the public library by the people of Buffalo.

The dominating idea of the library man-

agement throughout the seven years has been how to bring the books of the library most wisely, most easily, most attractively, into the hands of their owners, the citizens of Buffalo. This idea governed the rules by which those qualified to borrow books were determined, hence they were very liberal. Any grown person, and any child who was old enough to write his name, might have the cards which entitled him to draw books by simply identifying himself as a resident of Buffalo, with a stated home in the city. Even this registration, as it is called, is irksome to the unthinking, but, of course, it is quite impossible to allow public property to be carried away by persons whom it is not easily possible to trace. No such thing as a guarantee, or identification by a property-owner is required, but simply satisfactory evidence of the person's real name and residence.

At the end of four months from the opening, there were more than 32,000 registered borrowers. The old library had at no time more than about 1,500 members. The increase is strong testimony of how effective a barrier even a small fee is to multitudes of would-be readers. The registered borrowers now number 56,500, besides 30,000 children, whose attendance at the public schools is made to serve as sufficient identification.

The next thing to be considered was how freely the people could wisely and safely be permitted to handle the stock of books in making their choice to take home. The precedents in public libraries the country over were by no means uniform,—e.g., Boston closed its circulating books and required that they be asked for by list at a desk, and threw its beautiful reference library open; Cleveland opened its entire



THE BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY.

circulating shelves and restricted its reference shelves; Philadelphia threw all shelves open, and Chicago closed every shelf.

The policy of an institution, like the conduct of an individual, is usually a resultant of the clash between ideals and fixed conditions, and the policy in this case was so determined.

The Buffalo Public Library was born with a large collection of books and a building; these were its fixed conditions. These books had been gathered during a period of sixty years. Some of them were too valueless, by reason of age and consequent lack of interest, to be put in the way of unskilled readers; and, on the other hand, some of them were of value to the few, the students merely, and of so great value that it would be the height of extravagance to allow them to be worn out by the aimless handling of the many, to whom they are without interest. The building was arranged to store the books in what is called a "stack,"—that is, in this case at least, a long, rather narrow room, with two stories of bookcases throughout, separated by aisles less than three feet wide, the whole rather poorly lighted. It was evidently quite impossible to admit people in any numbers into such a room and expect them to find what they wished and keep even reasonably out of one another's way. It seemed a foregone conclusion that the public could not have free access to the mass of the books, and a compromise was in order.

AN OPEN-SHELF DEPARTMENT.

In the course of some alterations in the building, to make it more fit to accommodate large numbers of people, by the removal of partitions and the cutting of new openings, an attractive, well-lighted, easily accessible room, 75 by 38 feet in dimensions, was provided. This room was shelved with oak bookcases seven shelves high, around the walls only, leaving the center of the room free for tables and hospitable chairs. Shelving was thus at hand where about eight thousand books could be comfortably displayed to a large number of people. Upon these shelves was placed a selected library representing all classes of literature, with the exception of books for reference only, not omitting a generous supply of the best novels.

The plan was to throw open the best popular books of every description,—not books for scholarly research, or even for careful study, but the best of everything to attract and interest that large class called "general readers." Besides the permanent collection, a section is reserved in this room where new books are shelved for three months after they are added to the library. Every one is welcome to this room

to read and to examine the books as he will, and such as have library cards may borrow the books in the usual way. These books serve best those who come to the library not knowing precisely what they want, but needing to be reminded of something that they have long desired to see but have momentarily forgotten, or to be pleased with something that attracts them by its appearance. Those who prefer to ask directly for what they want can be best served in the outer room, where assistants hand them books over the counter from the stack. The books in the open shelves, except the comparatively small number of new books, are all duplicated in the stack, and do not interfere with presenting lists in the time-honored way.

The purpose of the open shelves is to recommend the best books by placing each book where it can recommend itself by being seen and handled. Large numbers of duplicates are provided, so that favorites may always be represented on the shelves. Twenty thousand volumes are necessary to keep the eight thousand places on the shelves reasonably well filled. The list is constantly revised, and no book that proves unattractive is allowed to cumber the shelves, but is retired to the stack, to give place to something more desirable. No book is shelved here that has not something attractive in itself, which will make the book more likely to be read because it can be seen and examined.

ATTRACTING READERS TO THE BEST BOOKS.

Experience shows that no book which is well made,—that is, well printed and bound, and has a real, vital message for mankind,—fails to find appreciation. Many of the best and greatest books are borrowed from the open shelves four or five times as often, during the year, as copies of the same book are lent from the stack. To show that the collection is really liked, it is only necessary to say that during 1903, these 20,000 volumes gave a circulation of 245,000,—that is, each book of the entire number was taken home and, presumably, read twelve times during the year. This is, of course, an average; some did not go twelve times, but others went oftener. The ordinary library methods are used to attract attention to the books, such as special lists and special displays of books on current topics of interest, critical notices posted near the new books, book-posters, and bulletin displays.

The open-shelf collection,—a library for the general reader, carefully selected, tested by experience, and constantly revised,—cannot, and does not, strive to keep pace with the skilled novel-reader. It does attempt to put most of the old, great books, the authorities on special

subjects, the pleasant, lovable authors, and the best new books, be they delightful, useful, or instructive, before its readers, and the steady and, in many cases, growing use of these books is a constant source of encouragement and delight.

The question is always asked, and may as well be answered, "Do you not lose books under this system?" We certainly do, but very few,—less than 1 to 5,000 of circulation. The board of directors and library authorities have long ago lost the fetish idea in regard to books. This collection represents current books, easily replaceable and worth just the money it will cost to replace them. The money loss is many times made up by the saving in attendants' salaries, as it costs about one-third as much to circulate books in this way as under the old system. Neither the loss nor the saving is to be taken into account as compared with the pleasure and profit of the many who enjoy these privileges, and who, collectively, pay the pittance of loss.

The open-shelf department may be considered the most distinctive feature of the library's work, so much so that among librarians it is often referred to as the "Buffalo plan."

FREE USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

The reference department adjoins the open-shelf room. Here the ordinary encyclopædias, dictionaries, atlases, gazetteers, and the like are convenient to the visitor's hands, and skilled attendants are ready to place the entire resources of the library, from all departments, at the inquirer's service. Many books are bought with reference to the wants of the manufacturing interests of the city. These are occasionally used, and their information is very valuable at times, though not so often as might be expected by students in other lines. In mechanical engineering and manufacturing processes, practice is far in advance of the record of it. The most practical men, the men that bring things to pass, seldom either write or lecture, and books in these lines are often out of date before they are off the press. The consultation of formulas and tables, however, often saves the mechanic and the manufacturer much time.

It is by students of literature, by high-school pupils, and by members of literary clubs and societies that the room is most used.

The idea of accessibility, which pervades the library, is carried out in the periodical room by placing three hundred of the most popular current weekly and monthly magazines in an open rack, or case, in the center of the room. These are arranged alphabetically by titles, that they may be easily found, and are free to all, for use in the room, without receipt or record of any kind.



A CORNER OF THE CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT.

The same freedom prevails in the newspaper room, where the local dailies and weeklies and representative papers of other cities are placed on wall racks or reading tables, and invite the reader to their use without inquiry or formal receipt.

The children's department is administered on the same lines as the open-shelf room. The children have their own reference and reading room, and their library is a selection of the best children's books on open shelves. They have their picture bulletins, their special book lists, and special collections of books on topics in connection with their school studies and their Saturday-morning story hour. The children's work needs for its description an article by itself, although it differs little from that of other modern public libraries, save possibly in the size of its rooms and the volume of its circulation.

BRANCH LIBRARIES.

In order to reach people who live too far off to come to the main building, the library has nine delivery stations and three branch libraries. At the stations, a daily delivery is made of books asked for by written lists. These stations are usually located in drug stores or news-stands, the proprietors being responsible merely for receiving the requests and delivering the books.

Each of the three branches is a small library in itself, and has from two thousand to three thousand books. Each branch is in communication with the main library by telephone, and has a daily delivery of books from the central building to supply such calls as cannot be filled from the branch collection. The open-shelf system applies to all. The branch work has an effectiveness similar to that of the well-managed

library in a small town. The librarian is thoroughly acquainted with his small collection of books, and knows individually the readers who frequent the library, and their needs and wishes have the personal attention which they deserve.

PUBLIC-SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

The chief function of the public library is the education of good citizens, and its greatest opportunity is with young people. While the library affords information and recreation for those of mature years, it can help to form the characters of the children. Realizing this, it was thought all important to take advantage of the gathering of sixty thousand of the young citizens some two hundred days in the year, at an expense fifteen times greater than the cost of the public library, for the express purpose of suggesting to them the various ways by which they may develop into happy, wise, and useful citizens. Nowhere else does the city gather her citizens in any such numbers or so accessibly. If there is a means by which the two institutions, the school and the library, which are supported by the city for one and the same purpose, can unite their endeavors, the one strengthening, deepening, and enlarging the work of the other, is it not manifestly a culpable waste of both appropriations if they do not join forces?

When the library was made free every public school had something of a school library, bought with the State and city appropriations for the purpose, supplemented in many schools by gifts, the proceeds of entertainments, etc. Some of these libraries were good, but all of them were inadequate, and all of them failed in the vital matter that their use brought no association with the public library. They were school property, and there was no suggestion in them that when school-days were over there were in the public library more and better books, always free to them as one of their rights and privileges as children and citizens of Buffalo.

The school authorities of the city and the board of directors of the library have been equally alive to the value of the coöperation, have authorized each step, accepting and encouraging with good will and intelligence every advance in the system.

After careful consideration, the following plan was submitted to principals and teachers: the schools were to turn over to the public library all their miscellaneous books, retaining only purely reference books. These miscellaneous books were to be sorted, the poor ones withdrawn and the good ones, supplemented by others from the public library, were to be returned in the form of a library for each class-room, about equal in number of volumes to the number of pupils. Twenty-four school principals made application to have



THE NEWSPAPER DEPARTMENT.

the libraries in their schools, and ten schools were chosen for the experiment. In making the selection, the distance of the school from the library, the character of the district in which it was located, and the possession, by both principal and teachers, of such an intelligent sympathy with the idea as would give the experiment a fair test, were all taken into consideration.

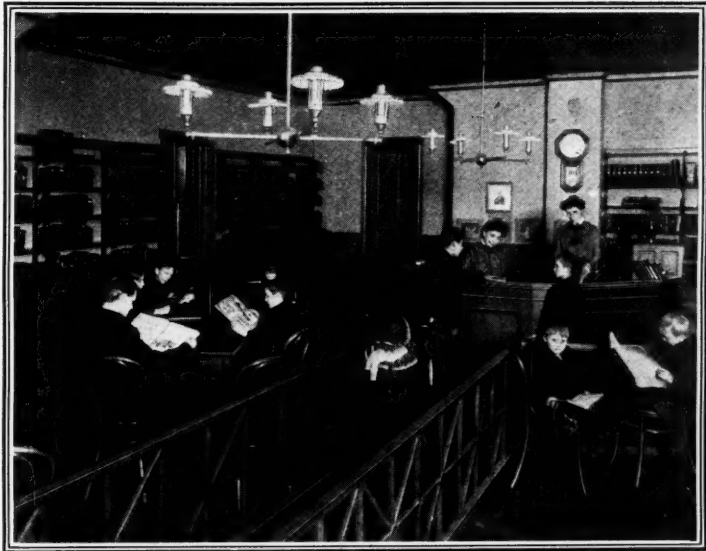
The books turned over to the library showed a plain need that selection and purchase should be in the hands of a single-headed institution like the public library, which could be held responsible, rather than a composite body of principals and teachers. Only about 20 per cent. of the books in the old school libraries were thought fit to return, and the public library added, from its own resources, more than five thousand volumes to begin the experiment. The selection was made with the greatest care, each book being thoroughly examined, and most of them critically read. Each school and each class was studied, with the aid of the teacher, before intelligent assignment of the books could be secured, and even then many errors were made,

some of which experience and observation have helped to correct.

The very simplest method of charging was devised, to be kept by the teacher. Each teacher was allowed to make her own rules for using the books. They might be used in the school-room, for reading to the children, drawn for home use, or in any way thought best, the only restriction being that they must never be used as rewards or punishments.

Library assistants visit each school twice each month,—once to take necessary statistics from the records, and once in a friendly way to talk with the teachers, to find whether the books are suitable, to take account of any special wants, and to aid the work in every possible way. Reasonable care of the books is required, but only such as is given to other school property, and in case of loss or damage there is no money liability for the teacher. The libraries are changed once during the school year by shifting from room to room or from school to school.

Schools have been added to the ten with which



THE WILLIAM IVES BRANCH OF THE BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY.

the start was made, until now thirty-nine schools, with six hundred and ninety-three class-room libraries, are included in the system. The school department began in very modest,—in fact, very cramped,—quarters in one of the library workrooms. The work grew so that it demanded more room, and the department now occupies five of the most desirable rooms in

the library. The pleasantest of all is a teachers' headquarters, where a sample of every school library book is kept, and where pictures are displayed. School reference books are here for inspection, and a small pedagogical library. Teachers can freely use this room for their committee meetings or in any way to help their work and make them at home in the library.

The difficult but natural and practical question is, "What is the result of all this?" The statistics of use of the books is the most tangible record. The first year, with ten schools, showed a home circulation of 27,469, with 6,400 volumes in use. In 1903, with 39 schools and 30,600 vol-



THE LAFAYETTE HIGH-SCHOOL BRANCH.

umes, the home circulation was 309,874. These figures speak for themselves, and it should be remembered that the books are not an ordinary general collection of children's books, but have been selected with great care, so that the circulation might justly be called "approved."

The success of the libraries is not uniform, but varies with the ability of the teacher to make use of the facilities offered. The library's idea is to furnish the teachers means, or at least an aid, to develop each individual child along the line of that child's strongest inclination and greatest ability.

TRAVELING LIBRARIES FOR FIREMEN AND OTHERS.

The stations of the city fire department are supplied with small libraries on the traveling-library plan,—that is, a case with from twenty-five to fifty books is sent to each fire-house, and is changed about six times a year. The work of the firemen involves so much enforced leisure, while they are waiting and must be ready for a call, that it gives them ample opportunity to read. These libraries are greatly enjoyed and highly appreciated. One fireman exclaimed, "Before the library came, I did not know there were such books in the world." Naturally books "where they do something" are chosen, and several chiefs have reported that numbers of their men read every book in the collection.

Besides the firemen, many others draw books on the traveling-library plan, and one hundred and eight collections were issued last year to literary clubs, teachers in private schools, five

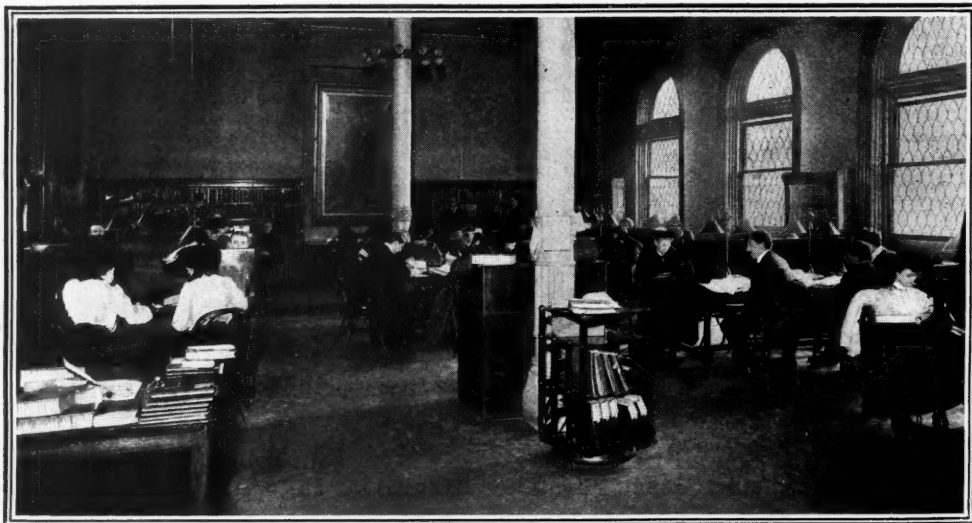
Sunday-schools, twelve charitable institutions, homes, etc. The spirit and practice of the library is to seek and to accept every opportunity to get the books into the hands of the people, and thus allow the books to serve most completely the purpose for which the institution stands.

SPIRIT OF THE LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.

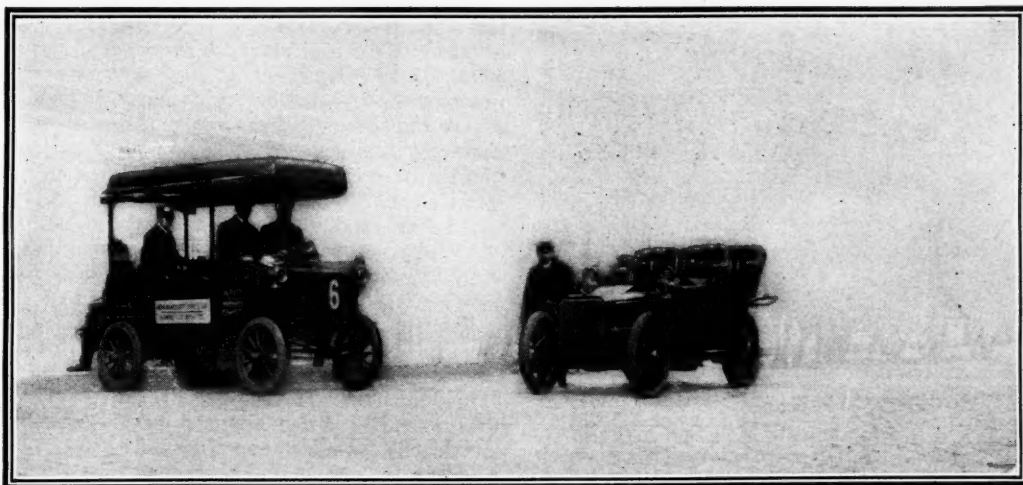
Not a prohibitory sign defaces the library rooms, and while there are many placards giving information and directions, it has never been found necessary to display a single "Thou shalt not."

The present annual income of the library, from all sources, is about \$85,000, and its annual circulation of books for home use 1,085,000 volumes.

The measure of success which the library has had is largely due to the wise and cordial support of the board of directors. Its policy from the start has been to impose responsibility for initial action and all executive work upon the librarian, and to require results. The librarian, to a certain extent, takes the same course with his heads of departments, so that the library has the cordial interest and endeavor of the personnel of the staff. The board meets once a month, with its treasurer and librarian, carefully examines the work of the month past, patiently listens to the plans for future work, and discusses and approves or not, as is thought most wise. The directors visit the library between meetings, and are the intelligent advisers and trusted friends of the librarian.



THE REFERENCE DEPARTMENT.



A TWO-THOUSAND-POUND GASOLINE WAGON ON THE SERVICE TEST.

THE AUTOMOBILE IN BUSINESS.

BY J. A. KINGMAN.

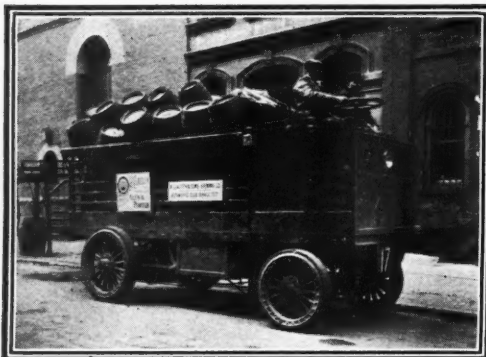
A TEST of commercial automobiles held this season under the auspices of the Automobile Club of America calls attention to the progress which is being made in this branch of transportation, and induces reflection on the advantages to be obtained from the general adoption of these vehicles for business purposes. This service test, so called, was excellent, in that it required the competing cars to perform for one week the actual duties of express wagons, trucks, and the like in regular delivery service in Greater New York. Thus, it was not a sham test, but an actual one; and it was of much value to both producer and consumer, showing the one where he could alter his product so as to make it conform more nearly to the requirements of the user and demonstrating to the other the advantages of the motor vehicle over the horse-drawn vehicle under actual working conditions. It may be stated briefly that out of seventeen competing cars, ranging in size from the light delivery van to the massive ten-ton truck, fifteen completed the work of the week in a most satisfactory manner. Of the two failures, one was traceable to the neglect of an attendant,—the vehicle being a truck which had won a gold medal in a similar trial held the year before,—and the other to the fact that the competing car was experimental, and had been hastily finished, so that it could take part in the test.

The fact that the manufacturers have been

busy building automobiles to carry a limited number of passengers forms the principal reason why business automobiles have not been produced in larger quantities. There are other causes as well,—the condition of the streets and roads, for instance, is a serious problem. Owners of pleasure automobiles will put up with indifferent roads provided the surfaces of these are not so bad as to prevent the pleasures of motoring; whereas business firms hesitate to invest in expensive automobiles unless they can receive substantial proof to the effect that such cars can be operated economically over our present roads and streets.

Another important reason why the production of business automobiles has been delayed is the necessity of time to perfect and standardize automobile mechanism. Work of this kind has progressed rapidly in late years, the changes and improvements following each other so closely that the manufacturers have had to exert themselves to the utmost to keep their product up to date.

The advantages accruing to the user and to the community at large from the adoption of commercial automobiles are numerous. First, there is the matter of economy,—economy of space, time, and money. The business automobile takes up less space in the stable or on the street than the horse and wagon, and this is an advantage which is very important. As an



TEN-TON GASOLINE-ELECTRIC TRUCK.

(The motive power is electricity obtained from two sources,—a dynamo driven by a gasoline motor and storage batteries,—a system referred to as "combined" or "mixed." The object of combining the gasoline and electric systems is to reduce the weight of the storage batteries. A car of this type did well in the service test held April last.)

example, it may be stated that a Philadelphia firm was confronted with the problem of building a new stable for horses and trucks. Owing to the size of the stable needed, and to the high price of land, the cost of this was to have been two hundred and forty thousand dollars. Automobiles were investigated, and the fact that they took up so much less room than horses and trucks resulted in the purchase of fifteen five-ton electric vehicles. An officer in a prominent New York department store stated recently that the automobiles used in their delivery work took up less than half the stable room formerly occupied by horses and wagons. A business automobile can cover more ground in a day than a horse and wagon, a statement which has been demonstrated many times and under various conditions. A New York brewer found that an automobile truck could make three trips per day, as against one trip made by a horse-drawn truck. In the recent test, one automobile made one hundred service stops in a single day, a performance which could hardly be equaled by a horse-drawn vehicle.

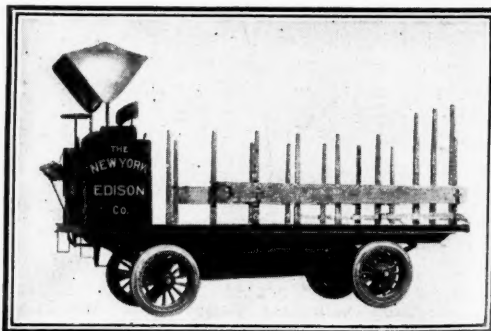
As to the various motive powers suitable for such vehicles, it may be stated that many designers believe that some one particular power is best suited for automobile delivery work, and will in time displace all others; whereas the probability is that each of the three tried servants, steam, electricity, and gasoline, will enjoy continued development, and each be used where best suited for the purpose.

The electric motor is too good to abandon because of the weight and other limitations of the storage battery as built at present. Such a mo-

tor is simple, reliable, and noiseless, and, what is particularly important, delivers its greatest *torque*, or turning effect, at its lowest speed, a property very valuable in a delivery car, which requires to be started from a state of rest so often. Ease and simplicity of operation, an important desideratum, is perhaps best exemplified in the electric car. It is capable of being left alone indefinitely, and of being instantly and surely started by the operator on his return; it is cleanly, quiet, and requires no extra attention in cold weather.

Electric automobiles for business purposes have received the greatest development in this country, and they are now used to a considerable extent in the larger cities. It is estimated that there are about three hundred delivery wagons and trucks of this type in New York City, these ranging in size from the department-store wagon, carrying about one ton, to the five-ton truck. One firm alone has supplied one hundred and fifty vehicles of this sort for use in the metropolitan district. The standard type of electric car, carrying two thousand pounds, costs twenty-five hundred dollars, of which three hundred dollars is for a body made in any style to suit the user. A three-ton truck costs about thirty-seven hundred dollars, and a five-ton truck about four thousand dollars. These figures are fairly representative, and refer to vehicles employing the type of storage battery in general use.

It is difficult to compare the cost of operation of any system of automobiles with that of horse-drawn vehicles, because in one case the automobile is relatively new, depreciation is difficult to estimate, and reliable figures are not too plentiful; and in the other case, horse-drawn vehicles may cost very much to run, or very

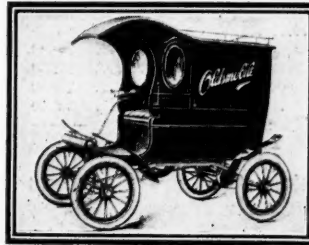


A FIVE-TON AUTOMOBILE TRUCK.

(In this case, it will be noticed that the cubic capacity is large, a most desirable feature. Much freight is comparatively light in proportion to its bulk,—thus the need for ample storage space.)

little, depending on how they are being used. Some horse delivery systems are very elaborate; others are very simple, economy being the prime requisite. A close observer of automobile development said, recently, that any one automobile can never replace a single horse and wagon, the reason for this statement being that firms using only one automobile would not be in a position to run it in the most economical manner. As time goes on and charging stations become more frequent, and the conditions under which business automobiles are used become somewhat changed, it is doubtful if this statement will hold true.

Any reader of this article who uses horse-drawn vehicles in his business will know the cost of such a system, and can thus compare the same with figures which will be given below as to the cost of operating electric vehicles. It must be remembered in this connection that the automobile can cover more ground than the horse-drawn vehicle, and that, even should a system of automobiles be obviously more expensive than horse-drawn vehicles, other advantages more than counterbalance this amount, whatever it might be in any particular case. The fact that many of the department stores in New York are using, more and more, business automobiles all the time is an indication of the satisfaction which these vehicles are giving, whatever may be the reasons for such satisfaction. One important point to remember in comparing the cost of automobiles with horses is that the life of a truck horse in New York City



A GASOLINE DELIVERY WAGON.

(Suitable for the rapid transportation of light loads of about five hundred pounds. Motive power obtained from a single-cylinder water-cooled gasoline motor.)

A car of this sort may be considered as a successful motor vehicle, for one prominent department store in New York has used fifteen of these for about six months, and recently placed an order for thirty-five more.

* Battery maintenance.....	\$404.85
Tire maintenance.....	130.00
Cost of battery charging current.....	122.70
General repairs.....	73.10
Depreciation, at 10 per cent.....	182.70
Interest on investment, at 5 per cent.....	125.00

Total.....\$1,038.35

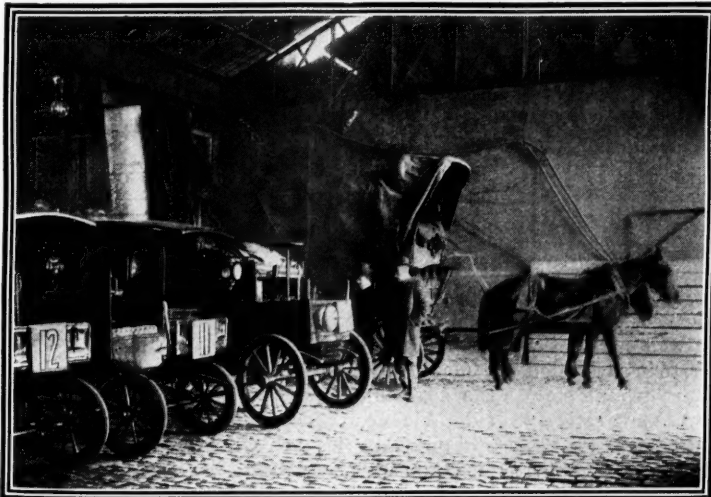
Assuming such a vehicle to run thirty miles a day, the yearly mileage may be estimated to be eighty-six hundred, approximately. The figures given above are well on the side of conservatism, and are perhaps unnecessarily high.

The cost of lubricating oil is not given, but this is comparatively small. Similar figures for a three-ton truck, costing thirty-seven hundred dollars, will now be given:

Battery maintenance.....	\$570.57
Tire maintenance.....	303.00
Cost of battery charging current.....	177.12
General repairs.....	106.88
Depreciation, at 10 per cent.....	267.20
Interest, at 5 per cent.....	185.00
Total.....	\$1,609.77

Proceeding further, and noting down cost for operating a five-ton truck, first cost of which is four thousand dollars.

* These figures are compiled from a technical paper by H. P. Maxim read before the Automobile Club of America.—J. A. K.



THE OLD AND THE NEW UNDER THE SAME ROOF.

(Interesting as illustrating graphically the economy of space which can be brought about by the use of commercial automobiles.)

Battery maintenance.....	\$636.15
Tire maintenance.....	348.00
Cost of battery charging current.....	186.40
General repairs.....	111.40
Depreciation, at 10 per cent.....	278.50
Interest, at 5 per cent.....	200.00

Total..... \$1,700.45

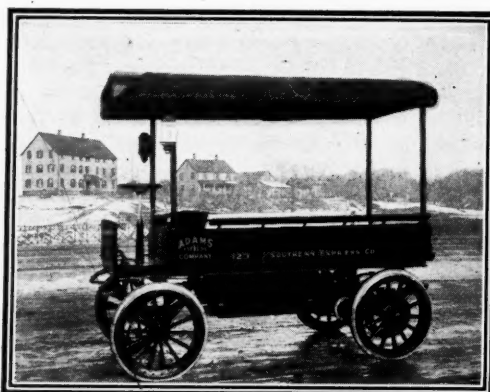
In looking over these figures, we find that the cost per ton-mile in the three cases is as follows :

One-ton truck.....	\$0.1261
Three-ton truck.....	0.1163
Five-ton truck.....	0.0874

Indicating that the larger the vehicle used the greater is the economy which may be obtained. In all three cases, it will be noticed that the cost of the battery maintenance plus the tire maintenance is greater than that of all other charges combined.

A company starting in to use automobiles in its business should estimate somewhat on the lines of the figures given above; it should charge off a liberal allowance yearly for depreciation; it should employ good men only, for economy is impossible with inefficient attendants or careless operators; it should watch carefully every little detail of the working of the system, for, even under favorable conditions, a service of this kind would show no saving unless rightly handled.

The gasoline motor appears to be gaining favor for commercial purposes. An example of this tendency is the fact that of the seventeen automobiles which competed in the test referred to at the beginning of this article, nine were driven by gasoline. In this connection it should be noted that five of these cars were entered by two manufacturers alone, the other four being comparatively new cars, and not manufactured in any quantity. Moreover, one manufacturer of electric cars whose product is well and widely known did not enter any machines in the test. The tendency exists, however, and it is rather curious, for, although the gasoline motor is highly desirable for touring cars, it does not seem as suitable as steam or electric power when the nature of delivery work is considered. The inelasticity—the inflexibility—of the gasoline motor is well known, and this causes complication of the driving mechanism and makes the gasoline car more difficult to operate in a crowded street and less convenient to start from a state of rest. Further than this, the comparatively slow speed of delivery automobiles makes the problem of cooling the motor more difficult than in the case of touring cars. The gasoline motor, however, is highly economical, quickly got ready, and, when well built and properly maintained, is thoroughly practical and reliable;



A BUSINESS AUTOMOBILE OF MODERATE SIZE DESIGNED TO CARRY A LOAD OF TWO THOUSAND POUNDS.

(The machinery and driving apparatus are carried on a frame, a style of construction which permits any body, either simple or elaborate, to be attached. Radius of action, thirty-five miles, at a normal speed of ten miles per hour. Electric motive power.)

moreover, the improvement of this form of motor in the past few years has been so remarkable that pessimistic forecasting of its future for delivery cars is decidedly irrelevant.

Light gasoline automobiles, carrying about five hundred pounds' load, are being produced in considerable quantity in this country, and sell for eight hundred and fifty dollars apiece. Heavier cars, carrying fifteen hundred and two thousand pounds, and up to as much as five tons, are being produced also, though not in such large quantities. A gasoline automobile of one ton capacity costs about the same as an electric car of equal capacity, or very close to twenty-five hundred dollars. A big five-ton truck costs about five thousand dollars. Foreign manufacturers are now giving much attention to this type, and some good thirty-six-passenger omnibuses have been produced in England. Well-known manufacturers of gasoline pleasure vehicles on the Continent have built excellent gasoline cars for delivery purposes as well as for omnibus service. Conditions are such, however, that few of these cars are on the market or are being sold in quantity. Thus, interesting figures relating to first cost and cost of operation are not readily obtainable.

Gasoline automobiles use electricity only for the sparking apparatus, so that the very considerable costs for charging and maintaining storage batteries are eliminated. The cost of fuel and lubricating oil, however, must be considered. Gasoline has gone up in price, in recent years, and now costs about fifteen cents per gallon, although in barrel lots it can be obtained for less than this,—say twelve cents a

gallon. This is almost twice what it was five years ago, and owing to the limited supply and the ever-increasing demand, it is likely that other liquid fuels will in time have to be employed. Alcohol is an excellent possibility, and, although its heat of combustion is less than that of gasoline, higher compression may be carried in an engine, thus making economy possible. The future of alcohol as a fuel for internal-combustion motors seems bright, and interesting experiments are being made on the other side of the water, the French department of agriculture being particularly active in this connection.

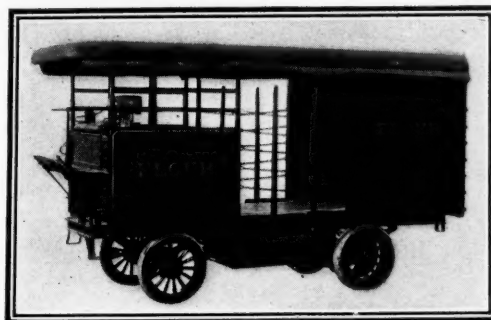
Some interesting figures regarding gasoline consumption are obtainable from the results of the service trial of automobiles held last April. A five-hundred-pound gasoline delivery wagon, operating thirty miles per day, should consume about two gallons of fuel in this distance; a two-thousand-pound car, operating similarly, seems to use twice this amount, or four gallons per day; a combination gasoline and electric truck carrying ten thousand pounds, operated daily in the test for about the same distance, consumes practically twenty gallons per day. These figures represent pretty good economy, so the higher price of fuel will be taken. For a year, then, the cost for gasoline would be as follows, assuming a thirty-mile daily run and the vehicle to be operated three hundred days in the year:

Light car, 600 gallons, at 15 cents.....	\$90.00
One-ton car, 1,200 gallons, at 15 cents.....	180.00
Five-ton car, 2,000 gallons, at 15 cents.....	300.00

In each case, the cost per ton-mile is as follows:

Light car.....	.4 cents.
One-ton car.....	.2 cents.
Five-ton car.....	.1 cent.

It will be noticed that the fuel charge decreases with the increased size of the vehicle,—an interesting fact, and substantiating the claim often made by automobile engineers that heavy



A FIVE-TON TRUCK (AMERICAN).

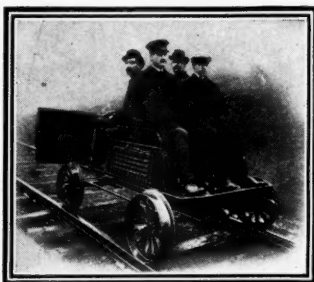
(Motive power obtained from storage batteries. Interesting, as showing one of the uses to which a vehicle of this kind can be put.)

hauling can be done more economically than light delivery work. Repairs are difficult to estimate, and may be considerable, as gasoline cars require considerable adjustment in order to keep them running at their best. Lubricants, in a general way, may be expected to cost about 10 per cent. of the amount expended annually for fuel.

The steam vehicle for business purposes has been most used in England, where it is employed for very heavy hauling work. In France, as well, considerable attention has been given to steam trucks, though not nearly to such an extent as in England, where at least half-a-dozen manufacturers are busily engaged in the production of vehicles of this sort. Several hundred heavy steam trucks, or lorries, are now operating in and about the city of London. In this country, comparatively few delivery cars of this power have been built, although some of those constructed for experimental purposes have done very good work.

From the above it will be seen that it is only necessary to consider, here, the heavy steam vehicles. A specially interesting study may be made of the performances of these cars, and of their economical relation to horse-drawn trucks. One case only will be cited here, and it probably represents what ordinarily might be expected from the operation of a vehicle of this kind on good English roads.

A milling concern in an English city purchased a steam truck, five tons' capacity, for \$2,500. In one year, the truck ran 5,275 miles, carrying 3,870 tons, the total cost being \$1,900, this including interest on first cost and wear and tear. The various items will be given below and compared with the items of cost for operating seven horses in 1902 which were displaced by the purchase and use of the automobile.



A RAILROAD INSPECTION CAR.

(Equipped with automobile machinery. Can be lifted from the rails by two men. A feature of the car is the fact that it operates the railroad automatic signals and spring switches. Carries fuel and water for 100 miles. Gasoline motive power.)

One steam lorry, in 1903.

Wages:	£	s.	d.
Driver, at 35 shillings.....	91	0	0
One man, at 26 shillings.....	67	12	0
	158	12	0
Repairs.....	44	7	0
Oil.....	16	12	10
Coal, 41½ tons.....	49	0	0
Insurance.....	11	18	0
Interest on cost.....	25	0	0
Depreciation.....	70	0	0
Incidentals.....	4	10	2
	£380	0	0

Seven horses, in 1902:

	£	s.	d.
Horse food.....	271	0	0
Wages—two carriers, at 24 shillings per week.....	124	16	0
Shoeing account.....	30	14	8
Veterinary bill.....	8	10	6
Repairs—vans and harness.....	11	2	9
Interest on capital—			
Seven horses, at £50, £350; 2 vans, carts,			
etc., £60,—total, £400, at 5 per cent.....	20	10	0
Depreciation on horses, vans, etc.....	50	0	0
Incidentals.....	3	6	1
	£520	0	0

This company states that it is likely seven horses could not have done the work performed by the steam truck, as the year was an unusually rainy one and the roads continually in a very bad state. In looking over the figures, it will be noticed that the wage item is greater with the steam truck than with the horse truck. In time, this should not be the case. Combining the shoeing account and the veterinary bill, repairs on harness, etc., we find that the amount thus obtained is greater than the repairs on the steam truck for one year, the saving amounting to twenty-five dollars. The cost of the horse feed for the year exceeds the cost of fuel and lubricants in the steam truck by almost one thousand dollars.

It is interesting to observe that the valuation on the horse outfit is two thousand dollars, against twenty-five hundred dollars for the truck. Note that this firm has estimated 14 per cent. yearly depreciation, a very reasonable allowance.

If any one motive power should survive as the final one, it would seem that this would be due to the fact that only one system is wanted, for the sake of convenience, rather than to the fact that it is the best for all branches of work to be performed by business automobiles. But this is not likely to be the result. In a general way, the electric car seems best suited for level cities and for transporting loads of from medium weight to heavy weight; the steam car is best for the biggest and heaviest trucks; and for quick light to medium weight delivery service,



A CURIOUS USE OF THE COMMERCIAL AUTOMOBILE.

(The vehicle shown is a street-cleaning truck [English] intended for municipal purposes. Shown ready for use in cleaning streets. The squeegee can be removed and the top compartment can be used for street refuse or water. The water-sprinkler is placed at the rear of the car, between the rear wheels and the sweeper.)

where the length of the haul may be considerable, it is doubtful if the internal-combustion motor can ever be equaled.

In referring to possible limitations or disadvantages of business automobiles, we must not forget similar limitations and disadvantages of the horse-drawn car. For instance, consider the influence of bad streets and bad weather,—this militates against the horse as much as against the automobile, if not more so. A thin coating of ice on Fifth Avenue, in New York, practically arrests horse traffic, although not affecting the movement of automobiles. There were some striking demonstrations of this last winter. In a measure, the tire expense parallels the cost of shoeing horses, although it is much greater. Here the horse has a material advantage, for the problem of getting durable tires is a most difficult one; as a matter of fact, it is the greatest single expense in maintaining a touring car to-day. That this problem can be met, there can be no doubt; once solved, it means a great step forward, a big barrier removed. Tires for very heavy trucks are often and very properly made of steel, so that in this case the problem requires no attention.

Granted that the horse is not cleanly, and that his hoofs make a noise, how about the automobile? The exhaust and cinders from a steam truck, the noisy and evil-smelling exhaust of certain gasoline cars, the dripping of oil, the difficulty of cleaning a storage battery,—these are some of the objections that might be pointed out. What was it that Rabelais said about "*cinq milles charrettes des diables*?" Suppose five thousand gasoline cars having the most pronounced gasoline-car characteristics to operate continually in a confined section of New York City,—we can see the shade of the departed

Rabelais nod approval,—only in this case it would be five thousand devil wagons instead of five thousand wagons filled with fiends.

But even now automobiles are more cleanly than horses. Each year they become more quiet, more convenient to care for, and more desirable from half a hundred æsthetical and utilitarian standpoints.

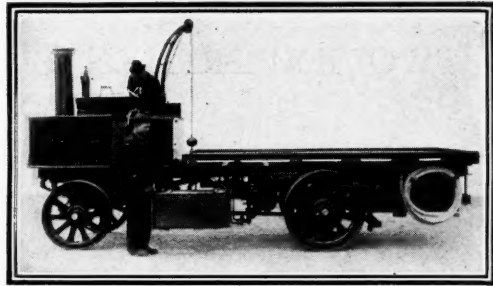
And as to safety: Are business automobiles going to be safer than horses? Are accidents to be frequent, causing injury and loss of life to persons, as well as loss of money to firms employing business autos? Certainly, automobiles can be driven much faster than horse vehicles with equal safety. On the other hand, it has



THE BUSINESS AUTOMOBILE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

(This illustration shows a heavy truck equipped with powerful engines to enable it to be used on South African roads. The machinery is all inclosed, and protected against dust and dirt.)

been pointed out that while the horse is an intelligent animal, the automobile is a brainless machine,—one will take care of itself if the driver be suddenly smitten down; the other may run amuck. We have seen automobiles do this, and must not forget that their power may be applied for harm as well as good. But accidents have been few, very few, and the absolute and instant control of an automobile by its operator has doubtless prevented many an accident which would have occurred with a less quickly operated horse and wagon. One source of danger is this,—whereas trolleys have their rails, automobiles are free to wander at the will of the operator. But improved municipal conditions will take care of this, and either street grade crossings will cease to exist or automobiles will

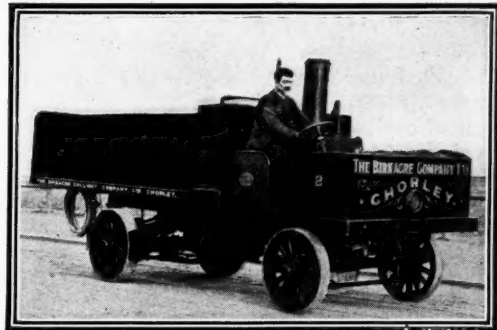


A HEAVY TRUCK IN OPERATION.

(The motive power is being used for another purpose than driving the car. A mechanically operated crane facilitates the loading of heavy cases, which would be difficult to move by hand.)

have their path set aside for them, as in the case of the trolley.

As to the trolley car itself, it is not yet known what development this will have, or what the effect of its growth will be on business automobiles. Some freight is already being carried by trolley cars, and under almost ideal conditions. The tire problem and the road problem are both eliminated; the power is always "on tap," made by a few experts and used by many not experts. But the trolley car has not the nobility of the auto; it cannot leave its track; it cannot run up and down side streets or out in the country and back at will. Its field is limited, while that of the commercial automobile is practically unlimited.



THIS ILLUSTRATION FAIRLY REPRESENTS THE ENGLISH TYPE OF SUBSTANTIALLY CONSTRUCTED STEAM TRUCK.

(Coke or coal is used for fuel, although wood can be used in districts where coal is scarce. A five-ton truck of this pattern has hauled seven tons fifty-four miles in one day. Twenty vehicles are used in an English city by a firm doing general forwarding work.)

TWO EXPERIMENTS IN THE TAXATION OF FRANCHISES.

I.—THE SPECIAL FRANCHISE TAX IN NEW YORK.

BY EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.

(Professor of Political Economy and Finance, Columbia University, New York.)

MOST people have only a vague impression of what the special franchise tax is. Every one, of course, knows that by the franchise in question is meant the franchise of a corporation. But few are aware of the fact that a franchise denotes three different things.

First, is what the Supreme Court calls the right to become or to be. The State accords to a certain number of individuals the privilege to become a corporation. This is often called a franchise, and the tax imposed on it a franchise tax. Usually, however, it is more properly termed an incorporation or charter fee. In New York, it is called an organization tax when applied to domestic corporations, and a license tax when applied to foreign corporations. It is a small tax on capital paid when the corporation is organized or begins business in this State.

The second kind of franchise is the franchise to do or to act,—the privilege not simply to become a corporation, but to carry on business. This is the kind of franchise which is sought to be reached when the law imposes a general tax as distinct from the charter fee. In New York, it is called the annual franchise tax, levied on nearly all corporations, and computed on the basis of capital stock, varying with the rate of dividends. An additional tax is imposed on the gross earnings of transportation and transmission companies, and in the case of insurance companies, horse or electric railways, and water, light, or power companies, the tax is assessed on premiums, gross earnings, or dividends. All these taxes are levied for State purposes alone.

Finally, there exists in New York a third kind of franchise,—not a franchise to become, not a franchise to act, but a franchise to make use of certain local privileges. This applies to quasi-public local corporations, like street railways and gas companies. It is a franchise to use the public streets, to burrow beneath them, or to go above them. It is this which is called in New York a special franchise. Thus, there are three kinds of corporate franchises,—the franchise to become, the franchise to do or to act, and the franchise to make use of certain local privileges.

The first two are taxed for State purposes ; the third, only for local purposes.

The general franchise tax is an outgrowth of the difficulty experienced by the States in applying the general property tax to corporations. The property tax as assessed on corporations by local officials has almost everywhere proved to be a dismal failure.

But why, it will be asked, should the new tax be called a franchise tax rather than a property tax ? In the first place, if we call it a franchise tax we avoid a great many embarrassments which attach to the same impost if called a property tax. For instance, our State constitutions commonly require uniform taxation of all property. Consequently, if corporate property is taxed as such, it must be assessed in precisely the same way as that of individuals. This, however, has proved to be impracticable. Hence, in order to be able to reach the property in a little different way, the tax is called a franchise tax. This illustrates the utility of legal fictions.

Secondly, the federal Constitution imposes restrictions upon the taxation of interstate commerce. If a State taxes property, it cannot reach property employed in interstate commerce. But if it calls the tax a franchise tax, even though the franchise be measured by some such standard as property or earnings, the Supreme Court holds that this is not repugnant to the Constitution. The franchise tax is, therefore, a mode of evading certain constitutional restrictions.

Not only have franchise taxes become important for these reasons, but in many States it is provided that franchises should be taxed, or that the value of corporate property for tax purposes should be deemed to include the value of the franchise. As a consequence, the questions have been almost everywhere forced upon us,—what is a franchise, and how shall it be measured ? In New York, so far as State taxation is concerned, these questions have not arisen, because the law governing State taxation does not call for any separate measurement of franchises, and prescribes definite methods of taxa-

tion for those imposts which happen to be called franchise taxes.

It is, however, in local finance that the question has come to the front. This is due to the fact that corporations are still taxable for local purposes in New York, according to the primitive system of the general property tax. The local officials are required to assess the real estate, and to add to this the value of the capital stock, less the value of the realty. In New York, however, in the case of personalty, a deduction for debts is permitted. The bonds of a corporation are its debts. Accordingly, all that is necessary in order to escape taxation on personalty is to create a bonded indebtedness a little larger than the capital stock. A few years ago, the assessors in New York City attempted to include in the assessment of a corporation the value of its franchise. The court held, in the *Union Trust Company* case (1891), that by capital stock is meant the capital of the corporation existing in money or property, and not the market value of the shares. The franchise of a corporation, therefore, although undeniably property, constitutes no part of its capital, and hence is not taxable. This decision was extended, in the *Manhattan Railway Company* case in 1895, so as to include not merely the franchise to do business, but also the franchise to use the streets, which, from other points of view, is deemed to be property. As a consequence, franchises were virtually exempt.

It was this decision which led Senator Ford to adopt the ingenious device of calling these franchises real estate. The point of this device is that in New York deductions are not permitted for debts on real estate, although they are allowed for debts on personalty.

The law of 1899 provides that hereafter real estate should be so defined as to include "the value of all franchises, rights, authority, or permissions to construct, maintain, or operate in, under, above, upon, or through any streets, highways, or public places, any mains, pipes, tanks, conduits, or wires, with their appurtenances, for conducting water, steam heat, light, power, gas, oil, or other substance, or electricity for telegraphing, telephoning, or other purposes." Such franchises, moreover, are to be known as "special franchises."

Under the original law, the assessment of special franchises was, like that of all other property, put into the hands of the local assessors. It was, however, represented by some of the leading corporations that it would be far preferable to have the assessment made by a State board. This amendment was accordingly adopted. Yet, immediately after the adoption of the law, the constitutionality of the act was

assailed, among other reasons, on the very ground that the assessment by State officials would violate the principle of home rule.

The State Board of Tax Commissioners proceeded to assess the value of these special franchises. In many places the assessments were accepted and the tax was paid. The State Board tells us that over 80 per cent. of the assessments outside of New York City were paid. This, however, does not mean much, as out of a total real-estate assessment of \$284,000,000 for special franchises in 1903, those in New York City alone aggregated over \$235,000,000.

The chief grounds on which the validity of the act was contested are as follows:

1. It is a violation of the home-rule provisions of the State constitution.
2. It is a violation of the provision of the federal Constitution, which prohibits a State from passing any law which impairs the obligation of contracts.
3. The State Board did not adopt any certain or fixed rule or method in making the assessment.
4. Franchise values were assessed at one hundred cents on the dollar, whereas other real estate was assessed at a lower rate.

All these objections, as well as minor points, were met, in the opinion of ex-Judge Robert Earl, who acted as referee. Although his decision was reversed by the Appellate Division, it was upheld, a few months ago, by the Court of Appeals in 174, N. Y., 417. It was there decided that the grant of a general franchise to a corporation to live and to do business gives no right to occupy the public highways without special authority; that a franchise, whether general or special, is taxable as a species of property; and that the law imposing such a tax is a violation neither of the State nor of the federal Constitution. With reference to the home-rule provisions, the decision draws a line of distinction between local officers, whose functions are purely local, and State officials authorized to carry out the provision of a new system of taxation, requiring the exercise of new functions which never belonged to local assessors. In short, the law was upheld in every point. An appeal has now been taken to the Supreme Court at Washington, and it is understood that the case will be argued in October. The State officials declare themselves confident that the decision will not be reversed.

It is obvious why the case is being so hotly contested. There is virtually no chance of evading the tax, which means an increase of from 25 to 50 per cent. in the amount paid. According to the figures contained in the last re-

port of the State Board, the surface street railways were assessed for special franchises in 1902 at \$169,047,481, while the total assessment of their entire property was \$209,032,149. If we take as a basis the local tax rate of New York City, which is about 1.41, this would mean a total local tax of \$2,947,735, whereas in 1902 the total local tax under the old system amounted to \$2,337,444. The difference represents an increase of over 25 per cent. In the case of gas companies, special franchises were assessed at \$50,565,840, and the entire property at \$109,650,218. At the same rate this would mean a tax of over \$1,546,065, as against local taxes in 1902 of \$1,032,879, or an increase of almost 50 per cent. Figured in proportion to the gross and net earnings (understanding by the latter term gross earnings less operating expenses plus interest), the taxes on surface street railways, on the basis of the last assessments, would be 5.25 per cent. of the gross receipts for special franchise alone. The total local taxes would be 6.48 per cent. of the gross receipts. If we add to this the State taxes, the entire sum paid in taxation would amount to almost 8 per cent. of gross receipts, or about 27 per cent. of net receipts. This, it will be seen, is far higher than in New Jersey, where a special franchise tax is levied on gross receipts at the rate of only 2 per cent. Under the system of taxation in New York, therefore, if it is finally upheld, surface street railways will pay in taxation considerably over one-fourth of their entire net earnings. The calculation for the other classes of quasi-public corporations can easily be made from the reports.

From the economic point of view, the assessment of a franchise as real estate is immaterial. A franchise may be called that element of corporate value which is over and above the tangible, physical property. It is an ingredient of the property because the income that is earned by the corporation comes out of its entire property, its physical property plus the opportunity to utilize this property. Economically, a franchise may be called real estate or personalty; it is both, and it is neither. In theory, it attaches to real estate as much as to tangible personalty. It is an indefinable something which makes the real estate, and which equally makes the tangible personalty, worth what it sells for.

In Europe the franchise question does not exist, because corporations, like individuals, are taxed on the basis of earnings. In this country, property, and not earnings, forms the basis of assessment. The value of property, however, is always the capitalization of present and estimated future earnings. A franchise contributes to the earnings as much as does any other form of property, and is thus equally taxable.

The special franchise law does not prescribe any specific method of assessment, as is the case in many other States. Everything is left to the discretion of the State Board. What the public is interested in, however, is not so much the method of assessment as the result. The result in New York will undoubtedly be to make public-service corporations contribute to the expenses of local government in a considerably larger degree than has hitherto been the case.

II.—THE TAXATION OF BANK FRANCHISES.

BY PROFESSOR CARL C. PLEHN.

(Of the University of California.)

THE Supreme Court of California has recently handed down a very important decision relating to the taxation of corporate franchises, and especially of the franchises of banking corporations. The case is that of the Bank of California *versus* the City and County of San Francisco, decided on February 18, 1904. The decision sustains an assessment of \$750,000 upon the franchise of the bank. Aside from the interest which attaches to the decision on account of its bearing on problems of taxation, it is of importance as giving an almost fatal blow to the system of great State banks which has prevailed in California. It is felt that such banks

may now be forced to surrender their State charters and pass into the national banking system or reorganize as copartnerships.

Franchises are specifically mentioned in the constitution of the State in the list of property subject to taxation, and it is further prescribed that all property shall be taxed in proportion to its value. Franchises were defined by the Supreme Court in an early case (*Spring Valley Water Works versus Schottler*, 62, Cal. 69) as "special privileges conferred by government on individuals, and which do not belong to the citizens of the country generally by common right." Under this construction, valuable franchises of

a monopolistic character, like those of public-service corporations, have been quite universally taxed in California, but there has always been a doubt, which has resulted in a variety of practice, whether simple franchises conferring merely the right to be a corporation were taxable, and, if so, whether they were taxable for more than their cost,—namely, the fees charged for incorporation. The present decision makes the latter class of franchises taxable and leaves the determination of their value entirely to the discretion of the assessor, without its being subject to review by the courts.

The series of events which led to this case make an interesting and instructive story. Among the items of personal property which most frequently and conspicuously escape taxation in California are money and credits. These under the law are taxable to the owners, and the banks are allowed to deduct from their total assets all amounts due depositors, as the latter are supposed to return these on their own statements to the assessors. This the owners or depositors do not do. Instigated by a desire to place some of this elusive property on the tax rolls, the assessors have for some years been treating the banks with ever-increasing severity, and in 1896 they succeeded in obtaining the assistance of the bank commissioners in the matter of getting more complete statements from the banks. Real estate in San Francisco is assessed at from 50 to 60 per cent. of its market value, but the banks have been assessed for some years past on the full par value of all their taxable assets, and lately the attempt has been made to increase those assets by including franchises. The only justification of this severity is that the customers of the banks evade taxation.

California, as is well known, did not take kindly to the *régime* of paper money beginning with the Civil War, and has remained to this day on a gold basis, the yellow coins being in common circulation and paper money practically unknown except where the Eastern tourists abound. On that account there was little inducement for the banks to enter the national banking system, and many remained outside under State charters. But the hostile action on the part of the assessors drove a number of the banks to surrender their State charters and find refuge under the wing of the federal government. Here for a time they enjoyed considerable immunity from taxation, as the State law had not made adequate provision for taxing national banks. But in 1900 the law was amended so that national banks could be assessed and

taxed by that method which is provided by federal law and approved by the United States Supreme Court. Then the movement into the national banking system ceased.

The assessment of the franchise of the Bank of California at three-quarters of a million was a particularly vigorous attempt to reach personality in some form, whether in the hands of the owners or elsewhere. The decision of the court sustaining this assessment is not unanimous, two of the six justices participating in the case writing brief but vigorous dissenting opinions. One of the two is the chief justice. The argument of the dissenting opinions is, in the main, that the franchise of a banking corporation, although it may be taxable property, is not valuable property,—being, as it is pointed out, not vendible,—and an assessment upon such a franchise for so large an amount, as in this case, is virtually an assessment, not upon the franchise, but upon the good-will of the corporation. As the good-will of natural persons is not taxable, to tax that of a corporation constitutes unjust discrimination. Yet the decision stands, and while it stands makes an important addition to the law relating to taxation. If the reasoning of the court is carried to its logical conclusion, the new principle will apply to all corporations. There is nothing in the opinion which confines it to banks alone. This, unless remedied by legislation, will place a handicap on all business enterprises conducted by corporations when in competition with copartnerships.

Whether the "franchise" of a corporation,—its mere right to be a corporation, distinct from any special privileges it may enjoy,—can be properly defined, for purposes of taxation, so as to include the good-will of the business is a purely legal question, almost a legal quibble. But back of it lies the far more important economic question, how should such intangible wealth as good-will be taxed,—as property, or through its earning power? One of the most instructive features of the case we have before us is the revelation it made of the amount of such wealth. No less than three out of the eight millions, at which the stock of the Bank of California is valued in the market, were attributed to the good-will. It is generally conceded that we can succeed to a very limited extent in reaching the tax-paying ability represented by intangible wealth, by any extension of the present methods of property taxation. The rapid growth of such wealth forcibly suggests the necessity for such a reconstruction of our system of State and local taxation as shall make an equitable distribution of the burden possible.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CZAR'S LIMITED POWER.

HOW little the present Czar of all the Russias really has to say in the administration of his vast empire is graphically presented by Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand in an article in *Leslie's Monthly Magazine*. All that the world knows of Nicholas II., says this writer, testifies to his admirable qualities as a man, but not as a ruler. Russia needs the iron hand of a strong-willed, purposeful monarch, qualities of mind and character which Nicholas II., unfortunately, does not possess. Once in a while, says Dr. von Schierbrand, the Czar is permitted to have his own way. Such a case was that of the Hague international peace convention.

"While the unsuspecting world heralded that scheme as a harbinger of mutual good-will among the nations, as an abandonment of Russia's aggressive foreign policy, the various chancelleries of the leading nations received the accompanying manifesto with a dubious smile.

"The thing is deeply pathetic. Here was Nicholas II., with a heart full of love for his people and the world, lying awake nights making plans for the good of mankind. His days he passed in hard toil with the same purpose in mind, conscientiously examining basketfuls of official documents, petitions, complaints, and all sorts of measures proposed for the apparent amelioration of the condition of the Russian masses.

"Meanwhile, the men in whom he trusted, the real heads of the government, kept him in total ignorance of the actual state of affairs. He was made to see everything through their spectacles. It is the irony of fate that the very vastness of his empire makes it impossible for Nicholas II. to be anything but a figurehead. His trusting nature is his worst pitfall.

A FAITHFUL SON OF THE CHURCH.

"The Czar is very devout, a faithful son of the orthodox church, and this was the lever cleverly employed by the dreaded Chief Procurator of the Holy Synod, Pobiedonostseff, in bending his master to his nefarious plans. The Czar had solemnly sworn to support and maintain the constitution of the Grand Duchy of Finland, one of the most important dependencies of his crown, both in population and resources. Pobiedonostseff overcame the scruples of the Czar's tender

conscience and made him break his solemn oath. He did this by representing plausibly to the Czar that the safety of the empire and the interests of the orthodox church demanded the complete Russification of Finland. All protests of Finland's loyal subjects proved in vain. General Bobrikoff was sent as governor-general to Finland to suppress ruthlessly all opposition there to Russification. Finnish petitions were rejected by the Czar; Finnish delegations were not admitted to his presence; Finnish patriots were exiled or expelled and their property confiscated; the Finnish press was suppressed; the Finnish legislative body was rendered powerless and subjected to indignities; the whole former grand duchy, now a mere Russian province, was reduced to the quiet of a graveyard.

"Nicholas II. was prevailed upon by Pobiedonostseff to look upon all this as the carrying out of the will of the Most High, as the fulfillment of the command of Heaven, undertaken for the welfare of the nation and for the good of the orthodox church. Even a solemn oath did not weigh in the scale against such high purposes."

Pobiedonostseff this writer calls the chief evil genius of Nicholas II. The Czar has been cruelly misinformed as to the domestic and foreign policies of the empire.

"Nicholas II. for ten years has been placidly slumbering on the pillow of duty well done. Never for a moment has he suspected that he has been but a pawn on the chessboard, to be pushed whither the superior minds of his trusted advisers should choose. Thus it has come to pass that while the Autocrat of all the Russias has been led into the belief that Russian expansion in the far East was proceeding resistlessly, and that her 'benign' sway was being accepted with enthusiasm by Mongolians, Chinese, and even Japanese, the war cloud has burst upon him unawares. Similarly, the forces at his disposal, on land and sea, their efficiency and availability, have been misrepresented to him. The blame for this deplorable condition of affairs,—that is, from Russia's point of view,—must rest, not only with Pobiedonostseff and Plehve, but even in larger measure with the man who has overtopped them all in influence, Witte, and the men acting under his impetus."

RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY AND THE WAR.

A SCATHING denunciation of the Russian autocratic bureaucracy which brought about the war with Japan appears in the *Osvobodnitsye*, the organ of the Russian Constitutional party, published in Stuttgart and circulated extensively throughout the empire. The writer, who does not sign his name, believes that Japan was fully justified in beginning the war. She was deprived of her ascendancy in Korea, and especially of Port Arthur, which she had gained as a prize in the Chinese war. Russia has a great task before her. He continues:

"The struggle will be a stubborn one, and will demand great sacrifices. It would be criminal, at the present time, to conceal the seriousness of our position, for all the inflated patriotic effusions and the triumphant shouting of the jingoes will not stifle the voice of truth. Our eyes should not be closed to the fact," he continues, "that the misfortunes of an external war overwhelmed Russia at a time when the internal affairs of the country were in a sad plight.

RUSSIA WORSE THAN UNPREPARED.

"A series of far-reaching economic upheavals in the national life, the disorganization in all the departments of government, and the popular restlessness caused by a lack of confidence in the government,—all made imperative an immediate and thorough reorganization.

"The government measures in internal administration could not contribute to the strengthening of a healthy, vigorous national spirit, which would increase tenfold the nation's power for the triumphs of peace, as well as those of war. The persecutions directed against the free expression

of opinion, the brutal, cynical disregard of law and the rights of individuals and of public institutions, the suppression of the least growth of social initiative, and the manifestation of coarse, exulting brutality unhindered by any moral restraint are not at all calculated to strengthen the moral authority of government in the eyes of thinking men. The minister [von Plehve] who, unrestrained, directs the entire internal administration of Russia, skilled only in police tricks, and basing all his plans on the intimidated state of Russian society, is not a statesman for times of danger, capable of solving the difficult and responsible problem of internal peace.

"We see the utter incapacity to provide for the crying needs of the empire and the announcement from the throne of reforms which create either misunderstandings or hidden resentment. This is a cowardly, timid statesmanship, persistent only in its guarding of the power of bureaucratic rule. Vacillating, and full of contradictions, the indefinite and reactionary moods of the monarch are utilized by the courtiers and officials for their own selfish ends. Instead of an intelligent and moral coöperation with the people, the supreme governing power seeks support in the superstition and in the debauched instincts which cause the decay of the state's vitality. Those who speak and act in the name of Russia have disgraced her by shameless acts."

HOME PROBLEMS OF THE EMPIRE.

Russia has been forced into an inglorious and thoughtless war, he says, and asks, "Why are we carrying on this war?"

"Are we fighting for the national life inter-



ORNAMENT SUGGESTED TO GENERAL BOBRIKOFF FOR THE FINNISH PARLIAMENT HOUSE IN HELSINGFORS.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin). •

ests of Russia? To many, the term ice-free port serves as a magic watchword, but why should this ice-free port be on the Yellow Sea and not on the Persian Gulf? By expending our energies in the far East we are losing our influence in the near East, to which we are bound by vital interests, both moral and material. But are colonial possessions really necessary for Russia, and are we not paying too high a price for them? If the colonial expansion of England, Germany, and the United States find an explanation in the enormous excess of their population and in the colossal growth of their trade and industries that are seeking new markets, and also in the accumulation of capital that finds no demand in the home countries, none of these statements are applicable to Russia. Great tracts of fertile soil in the interior still remain unsettled; with more scientific methods of cultivation, the agricultural industries could sustain a much larger population. Our industries are in their infancy, and do not supply the home demand. Foreign capital is seizing upon many branches of Russian industry; our trade with China consists mostly of imports, and but little export."

It was Russia as an international power seek-

ing military predominance in the far East, and not Russia as a nation, that instituted the war. He concludes:

"We are repeating on an enormous scale in this Eastern enterprise all of our old mistakes, forgetting that we are living in the twentieth century, when the power of a state no longer rests on its number of armed soldiers, but on the mighty growth of national industry and national commerce. We have no public opinion. It is crushed, and cannot assert itself, nor even be formed. Nor is there a Russian government; there are merely separate departments, which are in constant war with one another; there is the many-headed hydra of bureaucracy, but there is no single and complete Russian government.

"Autocracy is not a government system, but the negation of all system; it is a blind, unfeeling force. It is necessary to free the Russian monarchy from autocracy, not merely for the sake of individual right, but for the sake of Russia. Let the idol of autocracy, the source of debauchery and indignity, be overthrown on the shores of the Yellow Sea, reddened by Russian blood."

JAPANESE SOCIALISTS AND THE WAR.

A RATHER interesting open letter from the Socialists of Japan to their brother Socialists of Russia appears in the *Heimin Shim-bun* (Tokio). The letter begins by reminding Russian Socialists that just twenty years ago they began "to preach under the banner of Social Democracy." It continues, in a remarkably courageous article:

"During that time, the persecutions of a despotic government and the cruel action of detectives have been such as have never before been seen. Your predecessors passed through the bitterest trials, having forsaken fame and fortune; and those who were shut up in prisons, exiled in desolate Siberia, or who perished on scaffolds were numberless. In spite of this, your agitation was not checked even in the slightest degree, but your courage always increased a hundredfold after each persecution. . . .

"Dear comrades: Your government and our government have plunged into fighting, at last, in order to satisfy their imperialistic desires, but to Socialists there is no barrier of race, territory, or nationality. We are comrades, brothers and sisters, and have no reason to fight each other. Your enemy is not the Japanese people, but our militarism and so-called patriotism. Nor is our

enemy the Russian people, but your militarism and so-called patriotism. . . .

"We cannot foresee which of the two governments shall win in fighting, but whichever gets the victory, the results of the war will be all the same—general misery, the burden of heavy taxes, the degradation of morality, and the supremacy of militarism. Therefore, the most important question before us is not which government shall win, but how soon can we bring the war to an end. The determination of the International Workmen's League in its agitations in the time of the Franco-Prussian War gives us a good lesson. We are comrades, brothers and sisters, and have no reason why we should fight."

Japanese Socialists for Peace.

An anonymous writer in the *Rikugi Zasshi*, a Japanese magazine, maintains that the entire Japanese people, without distinction of party or religion, is mad over war; that it thinks of nothing else, and that the Socialists are the only people in Japan who have escaped the contagion. Not only have they the courage to refuse to sing the war hymns with the others, says he, but they even dare to speak openly of the benefits of peace.

COUNT CASSINI ON RUSSIA'S POSITION IN THE FAR EAST.

THE statement by the Russian ambassador at Washington, Count Cassini, in the *North American Review* for May, partakes of the nature of an official utterance. Count Cassini prefaces his statement with the remark that he is actuated by the hope that it will be alike for the benefit of Russia and the readers of the magazine.

The ambassador declares, in the first place, that Russia's diplomacy has ever made for her own and the world's peace, and that it was in this spirit that she entered into negotiations with Japan last summer, in the fervent hope that an understanding satisfactory and honorable to all might be the result. Russia believed that Japan was actuated by the same sentiments, and she only saw her mistake when Japan, without fair warning, substituted arms for diplomacy; and then Russia realized that Japan was using diplomacy as a time-gaining device, that she might the better equip herself for the war upon which she appears all along to have been determined. "When I was in Paris last summer," says Count Cassini, "a prominent Japanese remarked to me, 'Before we meet again, our countries will be at war.' 'Why do you say that?' I asked. 'Russia's desire has always been for peace, and the war would not be of her making.' 'Certainly not,' he replied. 'It would be what my country has so long been hoping for and expecting. She needs a war to place her in the front rank of nations, and while your diplomacy may stave off hostilities a little while longer, Japan will get a war with you before a year has gone.'

"I hoped my Japanese friend was wrong; my government hoped so, and yet even then there were many evidences that he spoke the truth. The correctness of his statement was not fully appreciated, however, until the treacherous midnight attack on Port Arthur by Japanese torpedo boats while the Japanese minister at St. Petersburg was still enjoying the protection and the courtesies of the Russian Government, to whom he had only a short while before expressed the confident hope that war might yet be averted.

RUSSIA NOT EAGER FOR WAR.

"Russia has never ceased to wonder why the idea that she was willing and anxious to make war with Japan became so generally prevalent in the United States. Prejudiced minds, or those having nothing beyond a superficial knowledge of my government's position preceding the unexpected and dishonorable attack

upon our fleet at Port Arthur, may dispute the statement that Russia hoped for and tried to maintain peace, but I have no hesitation in making it.

THE PROOF: HER UNPREPAREDNESS.

"If proof of the assertion be demanded, it lies in the simple but uncontradicted answer—Russia was not prepared. For the personal representative of the Russian Emperor to make an admission seemingly so humiliating to national pride may appear strange and remarkable to the people of the United States, but it is made with full appreciation of its importance and significance.

"Faithfully adhering to the terms of her treaty with China respecting Manchuria, Russia had withdrawn the major portion of her troops from that province, until between sixty thousand and seventy thousand only remained. Such a proceeding makes ridiculous the allegation that Russia, actuated by designs upon not only Manchuria, but Korea, was from the first determined to possess this territory by force of arms, and that negotiations were prolonged for the purpose of giving opportunity for the concentration of the Russian forces upon Manchurian soil."

RUSSIA'S INTERESTS IN MANCHURIA.

Count Cassini then goes on to say that Russia is fighting for vast interests that it would be foolhardy for her to abandon. The fact that Russia, being foremost in developing Manchuria, has given her a privileged position in that territory, he says, will not be denied by fair-minded men. The idea that Russia gained her foothold through military conquest he declares to be erroneous. What was gained, he says, was through the pacific channels of diplomacy, and the privileges thus gained, he adds, have been exercised in a spirit of modern progressiveness, until now the flower of civilization blooms throughout a region that a few years ago was a desolate waste.

JAPAN AND KOREA.

Count Cassini then says that Japan became jealous of Russia's interests in Manchuria and endeavored to establish a parallel position in Korea. For Russia to have consented to such a parallel, he says, would have been to surrender a principle that the powers, including Japan, had recognized, in that they stood, or asserted that they stood, for the absolute independence of the Korean Empire.

The article then deals at length with the negotiations last summer.

ONE PHASE OF THE "YELLOW PERIL."

"It is not a thoughtless statement," writes the ambassador, "that were Japan to obtain supreme control in Manchuria the dominant military spirit of the Japanese would lead them to organize the Chinese into a modern army of such proportions that Europe and America would stand aghast at this menace to their peace and well-being. This is a phase of what has been called the 'yellow peril' that it would be well for the thoughtful and intelligent classes to consider carefully. The Chinese make good soldiers. To suppose them to be pusillanimous in character is erroneous. They are easily trained by competent instructors, and with a

population of more than four hundred and thirty millions to draw from, an army could be raised that, coöperating with Japan, might, with a reasonable show of confidence, defy the civilized world."

Count Cassini concludes his article by reciting the great advantage that would accrue to the commerce of the United States should Russia triumph in the present conflict. Should Japan win, she, making the same goods that America manufactures, and making them cheaper than America can make them, would be able to supply this demand herself.

"On the other hand," says Count Cassini, "Manchuria stands under Russian control with a friendly hand extended to the United States, and Japan given no encouragement. To my mind, the conclusion is obvious."

SCANDINAVIA AND THE WAR IN THE FAR EAST.

NO matter how the present Russo-Japanese war may end, the Scandinavian countries must be prepared for all possible eventualities. This is the editorial counsel of *Varia*, the illustrated monthly of Stockholm. Swedes and Norwegians have been much exercised over the oppression of Finland. Says the *Varia*, in commenting on the increase in the term of military service in Sweden:

"Knowing only too well the unappeasable land-hunger of the Muscovite, the Swedish Government has arranged for extensive mobilization, in order to assure the readiness of the army. One of the most important points, from a strategic view, is occupied by the island of Gothland, situated in the midst of the Baltic, rightly known as 'the eye of the Baltic.' This island is now heavily fortified and garrisoned." Sweden must take still further measures to insure her safety, says this magazine, which is pleased that the harbors of Stockholm and other Swedish cities have been mined and garrisoned.

The Scandinavian press in general fears to give utterance to any convictions that might incur the hostility of Russia, but the *Varia*, in a rather unusual article, speaks out boldly about the war in the far East. The interests and sympathies of the European nations, it says, are more evenly divided than the rest of the world imagines.

THE DIVISION OF EUROPEAN SYMPATHY.

"Those powers that desire the advance of culture, liberty, and progress, as England (and America), sympathize with Japan, while those

nations that stand for militarism, despotism, and the repression of the rights and privileges of the masses,—that is to say, the powers that still oppress and hinder the progress of liberty and en-



N. VON PLEHVE.

(The Russian minister of the interior who, the Swedes fear, is planning encroachments on Scandinavian territory.)

lightenment in the nations of Europe,—are hoping for the success of Russia."

In the latter class, says the *Varia*, stands Prussia, whose "old-time friendship for Russia is not diverted, notwithstanding the latter's alliance with France." It continues: "Did not

the German Emperor send the autocrat of all the Russias a helmet as a token of encouragement, while his government shows an admirable partisan zeal in preventing the escape of Russian subjects from the rigors of deportation to Siberia or other hopeless confinement in Russian prisons?" Japan's success has been a most disagreeable surprise to Europe, this Swedish magazine declares.

"We have been long accustomed to regard foreign peoples with a sense of distinct superiority, and the easy victories that have been won over Asiatic races, such as the Chinese, have not served to lessen our contempt for their prowess. But now we are contemplating a development of which no European dreamed. . . . The regeneration of Japan during the past half-century has seemed incomprehensible to Europeans, and they have never been able to reconcile themselves to it. One is constantly hearing the assertion that the reforms in Japan are moving altogether too quickly to last, and that they do not go deep enough. But the value of such prophecies seems to be steadily diminished by fact and experience. . . . Even if the development of Japan under less gifted rulers and statesmen

should be brought to a standstill, it is impossible to conceive that the work of the present emperor and his counselors can be entirely lost. The effect of a successful war would in any event serve only to strengthen it.

WHAT JAPAN HAS DONE.

"What the present emperor of Japan, Mutsuhito, together with his counselors, has performed seems almost to surpass everything that one has been accustomed to admire in the greatest rulers and statesmen of the world. It serves to elevate him immeasurably above rulers of the stamp of Czar Peter I., surnamed the Great, who could not, with all his tyranny, elevate his people above that half-barbaric state in which it still remains even to this day."

Whether Japan wins or not, says this magazine, she has demonstrated her right to be classed as a world-power. "If, by the shortsightedness of the European powers, Japan should once more be robbed of the material fruits of a victory, her energetic and progressive people will in any event have established their position, and right to occupy a prominent place among civilized nations."

JAPAN'S DIPLOMATIC FAILURE—A JAPANESE VIEW.

RUSO-JAPANESE diplomatic relations form the subject of most of the discussion in recent issues of Japanese magazines which have reached this country. In the new review, the *Jidai-Shicho* (Tokio), for February, Mr. Y. Takekoshi, a member of the Imperial Parliament, has an article on "The Real Status of Our Recent Diplomacy," in which he accuses Japan of serious diplomatic blunders in the negotiations with Russia before the war. Beginning with the period before the Boxer uprising, he says:

"Russia was busy in buying provisions and absorbing Chinese silver through the agency of the Russo-Chinese Bank. The world was then left in the dark as to the real motive of Russia in making such preparations. But, after the Boxer disturbance, we have reason to believe that Russia had fully anticipated the coming trouble, she herself having instigated the leaders of the Boxers to rise against foreigners, thus scheming to expel American, English, and Japanese influence from the court of China. No wonder that Russia was very slow to come to rescue the diplomatic corps besieged by the Chinese mobs, notwithstanding the fact that she had a large army stationed at the frontier.

While the powers were engaged in fighting the Boxers, Russia was secretly rushing her army into Manchuria, sending a mere fraction of it to Peking to reluctantly join the powers. The Russian occupation of Manchuria was not the outcome of the Boxer rising; but the latter was no doubt the consequence of a well-prepared scheme on the part of Russia. Were Baron Komura aware of this fact, he must as well have known that Japan could not cause Russia to evacuate Manchuria by mere threatenings and demonstrations. Yet the baron and Premier Katsura seem to have expected to realize such impossibilities."

WAS BARON KOMURA PRO-RUSSIAN?

Mr. Takekoshi retains some doubt as to the popular belief that Marquis Ito is the leader of pro-Russian statesmen, but is fully confident that Baron Komura, as well as Mr. Kurino, Japanese minister to Russia, maintains pro-Russian opinion. When, in 1900, Baron Komura entered the Katsura cabinet as foreign minister, and Mr. Kurino was sent to Russia to represent Japan at St. Petersburg, it was generally understood that the baron would attempt to realize his diplomatic principle in regard to Japan's relations

with Russia. In fact, he seems to have been confident that he could induce Russia to enter a certain understanding with reference to the far-Eastern situation by means of diplomatic negotiation. In the meantime, Marquis Ito started on his tour around the world, on a special mission, it was alleged, to be executed at St. Petersburg. What that mission was has not been made public, but Mr. Takekoshi tells us that the marquis undoubtedly tried to come to an agreement with Russia concerning the sta-

by the Anglo-Japanese alliance were sufficient to lead the Katsura ministry to believe that it was not difficult to secure satisfactory concessions from Russia."

THE BLUNDER OF THE KATSURA CABINET.

"Led by the apparent change of Russia's attitude to believe that she would withdraw from Manchuria of her own free will, the Katsura ministry did not protest, either in October, 1902, or in April, 1903, which were respectively fixed by Russia as the first and second dates of evacuation. At the third date, which came on October 10, 1903, our statesmen were at last convinced that Russia had no intention of withdrawing. Then they secretly invited newspaper editors and public speakers to cry loudly against Russia's deceitfulness, in the childish hope that the northern power might be made to withdraw by means of demonstrations. Sensational news and jingoistic articles filled newspaper columns day after day. Public meetings of belligerent nature were held in rapid succession. But, strangely enough, even by this time our government did not seem to have made any definite overture to Russia. Nor did it have any idea of declaring war. Strongly determined as they appeared at home, our statesmen were as meek as possible in approaching Russia. But at the third date for evacuation, Russia's elaborate plan of absorbing Manchuria was practically completed. No sane man could have expected her to evacuate tamely."

JAPAN'S CLAIM.

At last, Japan is said to have proposed to Russia that there should be established a neutral zone of six miles on both sides of the Yalu, and that Manchuria and Korea should be made spheres of influence of Russia and Japan, respectively. Such a proposal was simply ridiculous, says Mr. Takekoshi. In his opinion, that Korea is Japan's sphere of influence needs no recognition by Russia. It is an incontrovertible fact. "Our government no doubt deceived the public when it declared that the main issue in the pending contention was that Russia's influence should be entirely withdrawn from Manchuria. Were we to recognize Russia's sphere of influence in Manchuria, we should wonder what we were struggling for. A war fought on behalf of such a cause would certainly prove a most meaningless one."

Despite the contention of the opposition, however, that the Katsura cabinet has blundered. Mr. Takekoshi leaves us in no doubt as to the entire unity of the Japanese people in the prosecution of the war.



BARON KOMURA.
(Japanese foreign minister.)

tus of Korea and Manchuria. Russia, however, cleverly avoided considering Japan's proposal seriously. Then, suddenly, came an invitation from England to Japan to form an alliance with her. This invitation, as it was unexpected and extraordinary, no doubt intoxicated the Katsura ministry, which flattered itself that Japan was beginning to be recognized as a world-power, while English statesmen took it rather lightly. Alarmed by the formation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, Russia apparently began to change her attitude, and showed signs of courting Japan's *entente*, one of which was the appointment of Baron Rosen, who has been considered a pro-Japanese statesman, to be minister at Tokio. Was Russia really inclined to make any concession to Japan? Not at all, answers Mr. Takekoshi. "She was simply fooling us, preparing all the while for the time when she could deal us a decisive stroke. But Baron Komura's pro-Russian proclivities and the enchantment caused

THE FIRST MODERN MINISTER OF JAPAN.

ON the 14th of May, 1878, in the outskirts of Tokio, two samurais, disguised as peasants, stopped the carriage of Okoubo Tosimitsi, minister of the interior of the New Empire of Japan, and killed the minister and his coachman. This, says Louis Farges, in a review of Maurice Courant's book, "Ministers and Statesmen," in the *Revue Universelle*, was one of the last protestations of Old Japan against the new régime. Okoubo was one of the leading figures in the Restoration, which brought an end to the Tokougawa feudalism, restored the Emperor to his true rank, and began the present-day constitutional monarchy of Japan. The assassins were members of the oldest samurai families, which had taken part in the revolt of Saïgo, in 1874. Okou-



BARON SHIBUSAWA.

(The greatest industrial power in Japan, made possible by the policy of which Tosimitsi was the initiator.)

bo had traveled considerably and studied extensively in Europe, and had become imbued with the spirit of Western progress. His return to his native country, in 1868, was happily coincident with the culmination of that development which brought Japan in line with the nations of the modern world.

"Okoubo had been one of the most resolute workers in the revolution. He was, at the moment of his death, the most energetic, and, at the same time, the most methodical, of the reformers who on the ruins of the ancient feudal and hermit Nippon were building the New Japan, up to date, and open to the world. . . . In the events which preceded that memorable day of January 2, 1868, which saw the crum-

bling of the power and the splendor of the Shoguns, he played a decisive rôle. This rôle was not less brilliant, not less useful, in the events which followed. Okoubo had helped cut the cloth; he did much of the sewing of the garment. It was he who aided the first of the samurais to obtain an audience with the Emperor. He was almost the first of the class to become minister. It was he who, casting aside the prejudices of his caste, was chiefly instrumental in abolishing all ancient distinctions and in establishing, for Japan, absolute equality before the law. It was he who persuaded the Emperor to come out of his palace at Kioto ('where he lived way above the clouds') to come into actual contact with his people, and to build, first at Osaka, and then at Yeddo, what afterward became the capital under the new name of Tokio. . . . Finally, it was he who, more than any others, succeeded in opening up Japan to foreigners, understanding, as he did, the necessity of adapting external relations to internal reforms. He himself journeyed to Europe and the United States to take part in this great work."

Before 1868, Japan had a government of the oligarchic and feudal type; she has become a parliamentary monarchy, in which all Japanese are equal before the law. She tried to guard herself jealously against the diabolical inventions of Occidental civilization; she has ended by adopting, in less than a quarter of a century, the greater number of the scientific discoveries of the West, from the Gregorian calendar and vaccination even to military uniforms and railroads.

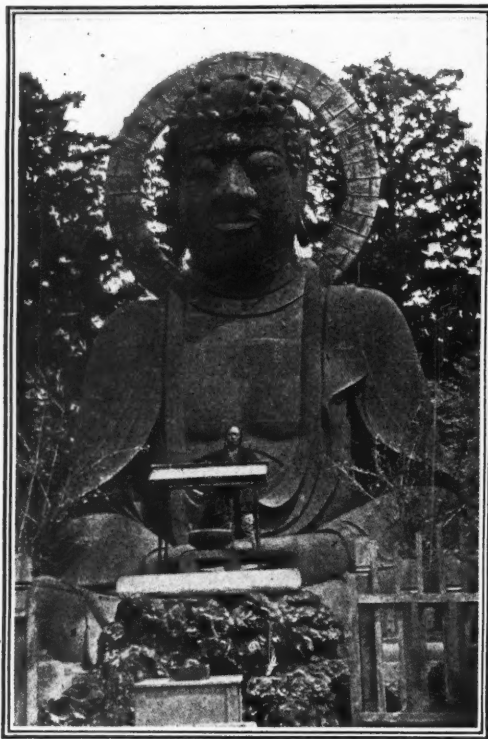
Japan, concludes M. Farges, "should always keep in her memory this man of simplicity, fidelity, and devotion. . . . The entire civilized world can bow with respect before this Asiatic, whose name is no longer spoken, but who was a real statesman and patriot."



OKOUBO TOSIMITSI, THE FIRST MODERN MINISTER OF JAPAN.

RELIGIOUS JAPAN AND HER NEEDS.

ONE of the most serious of the problems which face modern Japan is the modification of her ethical system to meet the demands of the present day. The Bushido, the code of morals developed by feudalism, had for its chief tenet: "*Shukun no tame, uchijini suru, fubo no jō mo, saishi no ai mo chūgi no tame ni wa nani ka sen?*" ("When dying fighting for one's master, affec-



DAI-BUTSU, THE GREAT IMAGE OF BUDDHA IN TOKIO.

tion for parents and the love of wife and children are thought nothing of compared to loyalty.") This is a creed entirely unsuited to modern social and political conditions, it is pointed out by a writer who signs himself "Foreign Resident" in the *Taiyo*, of Tokio. He continues:

"Men can no longer live by using the sword. In old times, they thought of how best to kill others or die themselves in honorable fashion. But in modern times men are concentrating all their thoughts upon ways of maintaining themselves and those dependent on them. What battles they do wage are peaceful ones connected with electioneering. We do not say that no loyalty, no filial piety, no integrity and honesty, are

needed to-day,—they are more needed than ever. But these virtues can no longer be developed in the manner familiar to readers of Japanese history. The despotic rule which these virtues were utilized to support has gone, and we live under entirely new conditions. In these days of keen competition and comparative equality among the classes, men are talking about their rights, about independence, liberty, and the like, and the old Confucian cry of *chūkō*, *chūkō*, sounds to most people as out of date. It is not *subjection* and *submission* that need to be preached to-day, but self-reliance, self-respect, and independence; and this educationists especially should fully recognize. . . .

WHAT IS NEEDED.

"It is not necessary to get rid of the old virtues in order to make room for new ones. The view I take is that the old virtues need supplementing in various ways. Loyalty, filial piety, benevolence, chastity, and personal cleanliness are virtues possessed by all nations which pretend to be at all civilized. But these virtues, as I have indicated above, do not exhaust the list of the moral qualities which are indispensable to success in the modern race of nations. Japan has entered the lists as a competitor. Her moral equipment, then, becomes a matter of primary importance. Unfortunately, she is still suffering from the effects of the Tokugawa rule. Under that rule, all forms of original thought on moral or other subjects were suspected and suppressed. It will take some generations to eradicate the evil effects of the social and political influences of Old Japan. These effects are to be traced in the fundamental ideas of the farmer and the mechanic. They account for his lack of enterprise, and for the fatalistic manner in which he clings to his environment, as though it were unalterable. Not less are the effects of these influences manifested in the lives and thoughts of the learned classes of society. With the majority, learning is no more than a pastime. It is pursued with no practical end in view, and is valued more as a polite accomplishment than as an organ of enlightenment and a means of ameliorating the condition of suffering humanity. . . . Every nation has changed its moral code from age to age as its altered circumstances have dictated, and where nations have come into close contact with each other, in not a few instances the moral code of one nation has modified considerably that of another. Japan's entrance into the comity of Western nations, and her determination not to be out-

done in the trial of national strength now going on, involves the necessity of her recasting her moral code, as she has recast her laws, in order to make it suit the new world."

The Present State of Japanese Religion.

Shintoism, the state religion of Japan, is really a religious cult, rather than a definite religious belief. It is the oldest religious idea in the empire, but many centuries ago Buddhism almost triumphed over it. A. C. Balet, in *La Revue* (Paris), declares that "although Shintoism is ingrained in the national character, it has not succeeded in modifying the Japanese temperament." The doctrine of Confucius alone, he adds, which has nothing of the metaphysical or religious about it—and precisely because of this fact—has left unmistakable traces on the manners of all the cultured classes of Japan. To-day, M. Balet thinks, the Japanese are looking for a new religion, which will perhaps recognize Jesus, Buddha, Confucius, and Mohammed. He writes, further:

"If there be any name full of religious promise which, nevertheless, gives nothing, that is the word 'Shinto.' It signifies the way of the gods, and yet it is without dogmas. Its cult and its ceremonies refer principally to popular *fêtes*. It deals also with the homage rendered to glorious ancestors, with here and there the grossest of superstitions, and—quite characteristically—not a single precept of religious morality except the following: Obey the impulse of your nature, and, above all, the Emperor. Such is Japanese Shintoism, a *résumé* of naturalism and theocratic respect." The sacred books of Shintoism, the *Kojiki* and the *Nihonki*, insist upon fantastic genealogies of gods and demigods,—the alleged ancestors of the dynasty which still reigns in Japan,—and are declared to be valueless from an historic standpoint. The Shintoist cult is very simple. The great and only obligatory rite is the purification of the body and the soul before approaching the *Miya*, or sacred stone. Each of these *Miyas* has its annual *fête*, and also a certain day of each month upon which this particular god must be propitiated. At present, there are one hundred and ninety thousand eight hundred Shinto temples, of which fifty-eight thousand are supported by the state.

THE RECORD OF BUDDHISM.

Buddhism has reigned in Japan for thirteen hundred years. It has had a glorious past; but it is now, without doubt, in the advanced stages of decay. The chief cause of the triumph of Buddhism in Japan, this writer declares, was the fact that it recognized the aristocratic régime,

and was protected by the emperors and by the *Shogunate*. Buddhism, he points out, did not come as an enemy or as a new militant faith, but as a friend anxious to conciliate the existing religion. Its priests, or *bonzes*, as they are called, accommodated themselves to the facts, and even the methods, of the old religion. The old idols were admitted as avatars of Buddha himself, and the faithful were permitted to go to a Shinto temple at the birth of their children, while they were expected to pray at a Buddhist shrine when they buried their dead. Buddhism, M. Balet continues, as presented to the Japanese, was very different from the original doctrine as formulated in India. Its abstract, metaphysical nature was modified so as to admit of a number of practices which would certainly have astonished Buddha himself had he returned. And yet, although it has apparently been cast off, Japan, says this writer, owes much to Buddhism in her letters and arts, as well as in speculation and practical life. The Buddhist priests, or *bonzes*, really created Japanese poetry, the drama, and architecture. When Buddhism came to Japan, Chinese characters had been used but a short time in the national writing. It was a *bonze* who invented the Japanese characters, and the monasteries soon became the first schools. "All that Japan now possesses of remarkable temples, of original statues, of paintings, of tapestry, and so forth, she owes, beyond a doubt, in their origin, to Buddhism." But, despite its influence, Buddhism could not permanently hold the Japanese mind, because Buddhism is a sort of sad pessimism, and the two dominant characteristics of the Japanese people are "a gay, careless, naïve optimism and a jingoism which is a colossal national vanity."

THE CULT OF CONFUCIUS.

Confucianism has played a great part in Japanese history, but M. Balet does not believe that it will hold its influence much longer. Confucius he characterizes as the philosopher of useful virtues without any ideal, and to Confucius he attributes "egoism, trickery, oppression of women and children, the prostitution of young girls, divorce laws for the benefit of men alone,—all these and many other facts are legitimate deductions from the Confucianist morality." The influence of this philosophy-religion was formerly enormous in Japan, and it has really made more impression than either Shintoism or Buddhism. It has created a profound impression upon the Japanese mind, and may be said to have brought about that stoicism which is best expressed in the Japanese saying, "I ignore life; why should you wish me to be concerned about death?"

THE STATUS AND FUTURE OF CHRISTIANITY.

Christianity, says M. Balet, was introduced into Japan at the end of the sixteenth century by Portuguese and Spanish missionaries. In less than half a century, the disciples of Francis Xavier had converted more than six thousand Japanese of all ranks,—daimios, priests, literary men, and artisans. Twenty years afterward, the number had been doubled. More than half of one of the provinces of the south officially set aside Buddha for Jesus. One of the famous Japanese warriors, Nobunaga, afterward Shogun, and an enemy to the Buddhists, was baptized in the Christian faith. The Protestant churches also made converts, but persecutions began, and the young church was strangled in its cradle. To-day, says M. Balet, neither Protestant nor Catholic churches have the thinking, intelligent members of society, and, of course, the Russian orthodox church is contrary to patriotic Japanese spirit. The modern Japanese version of Christianity, he believes, is the Neo-Christian liberal idea.

THE JAPANESE LOOK FOR A NEW RELIGION.

The Japanese are a very eclectic people, and they show this in their religious views as well as

in the political and economic systems which they have borrowed from the West. In the midst of the almost universal unbelief in the Japan of to-day, this French writer believes that there is a growing conviction, fed by the national pride, that a new religion will be born in Japan.

"These people are dreaming nothing less than that a sage or a demigod will be born in Japan and found the elements of a new religion, appropriate for the twentieth century, just as Buddha, Christ, and Mohammed founded those of centuries gone. Why should this great man, they ask, be born in Japan and not elsewhere? The answer is: Her relations to the other countries of the globe are as the sun is to the planets. She is the center toward which all progress, all discoveries, all beliefs, gravitate. . . . The Japanese are frank to confess that they have no creative genius, but they flatter themselves upon possessing a unique talent for assimilation and digestion under some new form. Is not Japanese art only the art of China, assimilated and transformed into a new creation, so new that it makes one forget the original?" This dream, says M. Balet, "is beautiful, but it is only a dream,—a dream of the preoccupation of national vanity."

HAS THE FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT BEEN JUSTIFIED?

A GENERATION having passed since the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the federal constitution, it would seem that the time has arrived when the wisdom of this important change in the organic law of the land may fairly be the subject of investigation. In the May number of the *Arena* (Boston), Dr. James E. Boyle, of the University of Wisconsin, gives many reasons for the conclusion that the amendment has failed of its purpose and has wrought far more harm than good.

In order that the reader may not be confused as to the true significance of the amendment, Dr. Boyle states in a single sentence the purport of the three amendments that were adopted after the Civil War: The Thirteenth Amendment made the negro a free man; the Fourteenth made him a citizen, with all the rights of a citizen, and aimed to stimulate the States to grant him suffrage; the Fifteenth Amendment guaranteed him that his right to vote should be free from any State interference or discriminations on the ground of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

Dr. Boyle summarizes the purposes of the

amendment as follows: (1) to punish the "rebels;" (2) to gain allies for the Republican party; (3) to benefit the general public; (4) to educate the negro in citizenship; and (5) to protect the colored race.

He decides that the amendment failed in all these purposes but the first, and the "rebels," he thinks, had had sufficient punishment, and deserved more considerate and generous treatment.

A STUPENDOUS FAILURE.

So far from gaining allies for the Republican party, the amendment lost that party several Northern States and the "solid South."

"It failed utterly from the public-benefit standpoint, which left out of view the fact that intelligent men are better able to legislate for their own welfare than are ignorant men for them. This point, however, is directly connected with the two following, and falls to the ground with them.

"It failed, worse than failed, to educate the negro in good citizenship. He found himself enfranchised, with the right to barter and sell

his vote, or hold an office which he could not fill. He immediately fell into the hands of professional politicians, and in this school of rottenness and corruption he became a plastic tool with marvelous facility. If *this* was the education he needed, God save the mark! But, despite his enfranchisement, bulwarked by the mighty force of the federal constitution, he does *not* vote—south of Delaware—or make himself an important political factor.

ALIENATION OF THE NEGRO'S BEST FRIENDS.

"That the colored race might be protected was the fifth purpose noted above. Here was the saddest, most stupendous, failure of all, and which years of time will not suffice to remedy. It was imagined that the appointment of an ignorant negro justice would protect the negroes in his vicinage. But the appointment of every

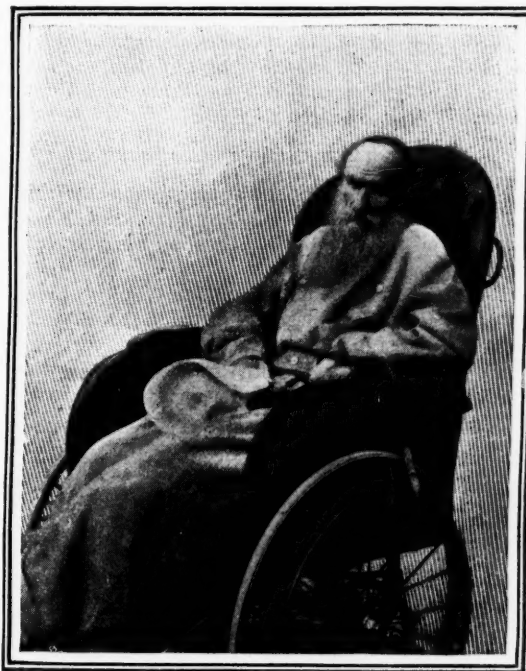
incompetent negro fanned the prejudice of the people, already overwrought in sectional feeling. It took from the negro his only true friend, the one competent to understand, advise, and help him,—his master,—and made him his enemy. The disfranchised master turned, with the instinct of self-preservation, against both the intruding carpet-bagger and his tool—the misguided negro. The negro was readily led to believe his liberators from the North were blessed saviors to him, and that his former master would reënslave him if he could. Thus, race prejudice was fostered, and the South was given her present race problem.

"Since the negro lost both ballot and friends throughout the South, we must pronounce this experiment in political science an unqualified failure. The right to the ballot is the capacity for the ballot."

COUNT TOLSTOY ON NON-RESISTANCE AND THE NEGRO QUESTION.

TOLSTOY has written a preface for a new biography of William Lloyd Garrison, which is about to be published (in English) by the Russian house of Tchertkoff. This preface is reproduced as an article in *La Revue*. Tolstoy admires Garrison as one of the few men in Western civilization who have had the high-mindedness and courage to advocate and carry out his favorite principle of non-resistance. Considering Garrison's ability and the success of the anti-slavery movement in the United States, the Russian reformer is surprised that the non-resistance idea has made such comparatively little progress in this country. Garrison, says Tolstoy, understood what no other of the advanced anti-slavery advocates comprehended,—that the one great count against slavery was that it was a negation of the right of liberty of certain men in no matter what condition they were. Garrison understood that "negro slavery was simply one phase of general violence. He proclaimed the general principle which no one could deny: No man, under any pretext whatsoever, has the right to dominate; that is to say, to employ violence against his kind. Garrison not only insisted on the right of the slaves to be free, but he particularly denied the right of any individual, or of society itself, to force any man by violent means to do its will. In the struggle against slavery, he [Garrison] enunciated the principle of the struggle against all the evil of the world."

To-day, continues Count Tolstoy, the same



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF COUNT TOLSTOY.

question, but in another form, presents itself before the American people. Formerly, he says, "the question was this: how to deliver the ne-

groes from the violence of the slave-owners. To-day, it is this: how to deliver the negroes from the violence of all the whites, and the whites from the violence of all the blacks. And the solution of this question in its new form will be found, no doubt, not in the lynching of the negroes, not in the artificial measures which American politicians will take, but only by the application in the national life of the very same principle which Garrison proclaimed forty years ago."

In this belief, Count Tolstoy says he is supported by the views of a number of prominent Americans, among whom he mentions Mr. W. J.

Bryan, whom he characterizes as "extraordinarily intelligent and advanced." The non-resistance principle, he says, signifies only "that natural relations between intelligent beings should consist, not in violence, which would admit that inferior organisms had no right, but in reasonable persuasion and in the admission that all men who desire to be useful to humanity should aspire to replace violence by the conviction of reason." William Lloyd Garrison, the Russian writer concludes, "will ever remain one of the greatest actors and grandest workers in real human progress."

HISTORY-TEACHING IN THE SOUTH.

THAT teachers of history in the South encounter difficulties not common to the whole country may well be believed, but some of those set forth by Prof. William E. Dodd, of Randolph-Macon College, in the *South Atlantic Quarterly* for April are unexpectedly serious. The ignorance of students entering college is not so surprising, since that phenomenon is not unknown at the North; but it does somewhat stagger our faith in popular education to be told that half the students of a high-grade college class in Virginia did not know who John Marshall was, or when he lived!

THE INTOLERANCE OF PUBLIC OPINION.

Another great difficulty mentioned by this Southern professor of history (and this is not easily understood by Northerners) is the attitude of public opinion.

"In the South, and particularly in the older section of it, public opinion is so thoroughly fixed that many subjects which come every day into the mind of the historian may not with safety even so much as be discussed. As already intimated, to suggest that the revolt from the Union in 1860 was not justified, was not led by the most lofty-minded of statesmen, is to invite, not only criticism, but an enforced resignation. According to Southern public opinion, the whole race question is finally settled never to be opened again, and in matters further removed from the field of politics, such as literature and art, it is exceedingly dangerous to give voice to adverse criticism of the South's attainments in the past or of her present status. Now, intellectual honesty and the fearless expression of what is believed to be truth are such cardinal virtues of the true teacher of history that they need not even be discussed here. On the other hand, every Southern man who knows the history of

the country, and who loves the people from whom he has sprung, desires to labor among them, and to labor in such a way as to bring lasting good to his section; and thus serving his section, serve also the whole American nation. What is to be done under such circumstances? To speak out boldly means, in many instances, to destroy one's power of usefulness; to remain silent is out of the question for the strong and honest man; and to follow the smooth *via media* means failure to influence anybody or anything."

THE DEMAND FOR "PATRIOTIC" HISTORY.

It seems that the Confederate "camps" are as active in the South as the Grand Army of the Republic in the North in censoring textbooks. These organizations "fear that what they call 'false history' may be smuggled in from the North, and have history committees, with representatives in every Congressional district, whose business is to keep watch and put out of the schools any and all books which do not come up to their standard of local patriotism. A copy of the instructions to one of these committees reads as follows: 'To report any book or books that fail to fasten in the minds of our children a becoming pride in the deeds of their fathers and that fail to give a truthful recital of the principles for which the Confederate soldier fought.' That sounds very well, and no historian could possibly take exception to it; but I have seen the very best books we have on American history ruled out of the South by these committees, for no board of education can live if it fail to heed the warning of the Confederate veterans; and as a rule, the very poorest books to be found anywhere are the favored ones on our *index expurgatorius*. The Confederate veteran works almost as great havoc in the field of history, though he unquestionably

does some good, as does the Union veteran in the neighborhood of the United States Treasury. Time alone can work a cure in this respect."

THE NEED OF ENDOWMENTS.

Professor Dodd also calls attention to the lack of opportunity in the South for first-hand investigation, stating that there is only one first-rate library of reference between Washington and New Orleans. The State and county authorities are negligent in preserving their own records, but something in that line is now being done in Alabama and Mississippi, and the documents of Virginia history are now for the first time being put in order.

"To conclude, our forces are weak, and the prospect of their being strengthened is none too

bright; our schools are poor, and the chances of reform are not many; public opinion is intolerant, and we buy only about one book in a hundred of the total output.

"But even under these circumstances there are manful efforts being made. In Virginia, at two strategic points, at least, there are earnest workers, and their efforts are already telling; in North Carolina, there is aggressive work, and one teacher and writer of history who devotes his whole time to his single field. What the supreme need is now is ample endowment at important points and reinforcement of the few devoted workers already in the harness,—endowments without any kind of 'strings' to them, and investigators who know no party and no dogma, and who seek only the truth and publish it."

THE INDUSTRIAL SOUTH.

IF any part of the United States has grounds for satisfaction with the returns of the last census, it is the South. The peculiar economic and social conditions that obtain in the Southern States should not be permitted to obscure the actual growth and progress that are working a mighty transformation in the whole region below Mason and Dixon's line. In the *Sewanee Review* (Sewanee, Tenn.), Mr. Frank T. Carlton reviews the changes of the last decade in a group of five Southern States,—South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Under the head of "Manufactures," this writer says:

"The census returns indicate a bright future, industrially, for this group of States. The South has great undeveloped resources in cotton, coal, iron, timber, and water power. The lack of skilled workmen and of capital is a severe handicap at the present time. Raw material, coal, and water power are found in close proximity, allowing a minimum of transportation of the materials needed in manufacturing. Not only should the South become a greater producer, but she should also become a greater consumer. Her workmen must be given social and educational advantages which will raise their standard of living. Agricultural products can be raised in abundance to satisfy the needs of a large industrial population. Conditions are favorable to a greater increase in manufacturing in the present decade than during the last.

INCREASE IN MANUFACTURES.

"During the period 1890–1900, the capital invested in the five States in manufactures has in-

creased from \$181,971,417 to \$376,407,915, or it has increased 106 per cent. This increase is partly due to a more careful enumeration in 1900 than in 1890. During the same period, the number of separate establishments increased from 13,955 to 25,990, an increase of 86.2 per cent.

"Each State has its own peculiar development. South Carolina is characterized by a remarkable growth in the manufacture of cotton goods. Cotton is brought to the mills of this State from several surrounding States. Twenty-four per cent. of the total power employed in this State is water power. In Georgia, the principal product of manufacture is cotton goods; but the lumber and timber interests are extensive. In Alabama, the iron and steel industry is the most important, and the rapid increase in the population of Birmingham is due to this industry. Deposits of iron ore, coal, limestone, and dolomite are found in close proximity in the neighborhood of Birmingham. The industrial prospects of Mississippi are the least promising of the group. This State has few natural advantages, lumber and timber being the chief products. In Louisiana, sugar-refining and lumbering have shown great increases during the last decade."

THE CONDITION OF THE WAGE-EARNERS.

The most alarming feature in the Southern industrial situation at the present time is the rapid increase in the number of children employed in the mills. In the South, 8.2 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners are children under sixteen years of age; in the United States as a whole, about 4.8 per cent. Apropos of this fact, Mr. Carlton says:

"There are practically no laws regarding the employment of women and children in the South, and very few labor laws of any sort. Louisiana prohibits the employment in factories of girls under fourteen and of boys under twelve years of age. Alabama prohibits the employment of women and of children under ten in mines. South Carolina has recently enacted legislation bettering the condition of child labor. This lack of labor legislation is one of the greatest menaces to the progress and prosperity of the South. The coming generation of workers will have little opportunity to receive the benefits of schooling and of real home life. Such conditions will tend to degrade permanently the character of the workmen as a class and to lower their standard of living. The South needs more skilled workers; she has an abundance of unskilled labor. In order to secure these, labor laws similar to those in force in other States should be enacted and enforced, particularly those which relate to the employment of women and children. The progress of the South, as of

any other section, depends upon the progress and prosperity of all the people, workers and employers alike. As the negroes are as yet not employed to any great extent in manufacturing industries, it seems likely that their children will be able to go to school while the children of the white factory employees are toiling in the factories, and therefore will receive a better education than the children of white workingmen. Such a condition can only accentuate the trouble and friction arising from the close and continual contact of the two dissimilar races living side by side.

"Labor is not well organized in the South. Very little organization exists among the negroes. In the year 1900, there were sixty-three strikes in the States under consideration, or about 3.5 per cent. of the total number for the entire United States. Labor unions are undoubtedly held in check by the fear that employers will 'negroize' their plants if the unions become aggressive. Agricultural laborers, particularly in the cotton fields, are largely negroes."

AGRICULTURAL WORK IN THE PHILIPPINES.

THOSE who have not given special attention to the matter have a very imperfect idea of what has been done in our island possessions in the way of introducing American methods for the promotion of agriculture. In Hawaii and Porto Rico, experiment stations have been established under government support, while in the Philippine Islands a bureau of agriculture has been in operation for about two years. The activity of the bureau in organizing its work of propaganda and investigation, as indicated by Professor Lamson-Scribner's second report, is briefly summarized in the May number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. This activity has been mainly along the lines of establishing experiment stations and farms, studying the conditions surrounding the principal agricultural industries, the introduction of farm machinery and improved methods of culture, and the testing and distribution of introduced plants and seed.

Seven experiment stations and farms have been established for special branches of agriculture or in typical sections of the country. These include a rice farm, a live-stock farm, a sugar station, a farm for cocoanut and Manila-hemp culture, a testing station near Manila, and two other stations for general work in typical localities. The coffee industry was formerly an extensive one in Batangas province, but, owing to the ravages of leaf-blight and borers, it has been

practically abandoned. The Government has started a plantation with imported hybrids, and it is hoped to secure resistance to disease and insect injuries by vigorous growing varieties and thorough cultivation.

IMPROVEMENTS IN RICE, COCOANUT, AND HEMP CULTURE.

Curiously enough, although rice is the staple article for the Filipinos, not enough of it is produced for home consumption. Special effort is therefore being made to promote the rice industry. Approved American methods are being followed on the rice farms, and the crop of last year was seeded, cut, and thrashed out with the latest machinery. This was a revelation to the natives, who have always used the primitive methods of growing and handling rice, and they were willing to pay a good toll for having their rice thrashed out by machinery, in preference to hand-thrashing. In fact, it is stated that the natives have taken readily to the modern agricultural implements and machinery introduced by the bureau.

On the hemp and cocoanut farm, the problems of managing the plantations and the preparing of copra, a staple article of export, are being taken up. It is believed that a more careful selection of the species of hemp and better methods of culture would greatly increase the

yield of merchantable fiber. Another thing greatly needed in the development of this important industry is the perfection of a machine for stripping and cleaning the hemp fiber.

THE PROBLEM OF LIVE STOCK.

For the stock farm, improved stock of different kinds has been imported with a view to the general improvement of the live stock in the islands, most of which is of an inferior quality,

while disease has carried off so many of the working animals as to cripple very seriously the native farming. The forage problem is also an acute one, under present conditions, since the forage consists entirely of grass cut fresh every day and sold to supply the need from day to day. New forage plants have been tested by the bureau, but nowhere in the Philippines has any attempt been made to produce hay, although this is supposed to be practicable.

THE PULITZER COLLEGE OF JOURNALISM.

SO many criticisms have been passed on the projected College of Journalism, founded by Mr. Joseph Pulitzer at Columbia University, that the founder himself has seen fit to present, in the May number of the *North American Review*, a forty-page review of these criticisms, together



MR. JOSEPH PULITZER.

with sundry reflections upon the power and progress of the press and a condensed statement of what might be accomplished by specialized education to improve the character and work of journalists.

In the first part of his article, Mr. Pulitzer states that he has cherished the project of a school of journalism for many years. Twelve years ago, he submitted the idea to President Low, of Columbia, who declined it. Since that time, he has continued to perfect and organize the scheme, and now it is accepted. He admits that the difficulties are many; but in weighing them impartially, he is more firmly convinced than ever of the ultimate success of the idea. "Before the century closes, schools of journalism will be generally accepted as a feature of general education, like schools of law or medicine." To the objection that a newspaper man must depend solely upon natural aptitude, or, in the common phrase, "that he must be born, not made," Mr. Pulitzer replies that the only position that occurs to him which a man in our republic can successfully fill by the simple fact of birth is that of an idiot. For all other positions, a man demands and receives training, either at home, in schools, by master-craftsmen, or through bitter experience. This last, he says, is the process by which pro-

fessional journalism at present obtains its recruits. "It works by natural selection and a survival of the fittest, and its failures are strewn along the wayside."

MORAL COURAGE IN JOURNALISM.

Admitting that the "news instinct," so called, must be born, Mr. Pulitzer opines that "if this instinct as born were turned loose in any newspaper office in New York without the control of sound judgment bred by considerable experience and training the results would be much more pleasing to the lawyers than to the editors." One of the chief difficulties in journalism now, in his opinion, is "to keep the news instinct from running rampant over the restraints of accuracy and conscience." At this point, much to the surprise, we imagine, of all rigid censors of the "yellow journalism," Mr. Pulitzer briefly discusses the questions "Can Conscience Be Developed?" and "Can Moral Courage Be Taught?" He raises the further question whether the conscience may not be considered more an acquired and inherited or inherent quality. "Is there not some reason to believe that conscience is largely a question of climate and geography?" Mr. Pulitzer admits that moral courage is one of the hardest things in the world to teach, but feels encouraged by the reflection that physical courage is taught. Thus, the student who enters West Point or Annapolis, though he be anything but a hero at the start, is so "drilled, hammered, and braced in the direction of courage" that by the time of graduation it is morally certain that when he takes his men under fire for the first time he will not flinch. Mr. Pulitzer trusts that in the same way the soul may be taught to cling to its conviction against temptation, prejudice, obloquy, and persecution.

LEARNING JOURNALISM "IN THE OFFICE."

All practical newspaper men will appreciate the force of Mr. Pulitzer's reply to the argu-

ment that journalism must be learned "in the office."

"What is the actual practice of the office? It is not intentional, but only incidental, training; it is not apprenticeship,—it is work, in which every participant is supposed to know his business. Nobody in a newspaper office has the time or the inclination to teach a raw reporter the things he ought to know before taking up even the humblest work of the journalist. That is not what editors are doing. One of the learned critics remarks that Greeley took young Raymond in hand and hammered him into a great editor. True. But was it not an expensive process, as well as an unusual one—the most distinguished newspaper-maker of his time turning himself into a college of journalism for the benefit of a single pupil? Suppose a man of half Greeley's capacity, set free from the exhausting labors and the harassing perplexities of creating a newspaper every day—relieved from the necessity of correcting the blunders of subordinates, of watching to prevent the perpetration of more blunders, and able to concentrate his whole heart and soul upon training his pupils—might he not be able to turn out, not one Raymond, but forty?

"Incidentally, I venture to mention that in my own experience as a newspaper reporter and editor I never had one single lesson from anybody.

"The 'shop' idea is the one that used to prevail in the law and in medicine. Legal studies began by copying bills of costs for the country lawyer; medical training by sweeping out a doctor's office. Now it is recognized that better results are obtained by starting with a systematic equipment in a professional school. The lawyer learns nothing at college except the theory of the law, its principles, and some precedents. When he receives his diploma, he is quite unprepared to practise. Nor does the doctor learn to practise at the medical school. He learns only principles, theories, rules, the experience of others—the foundation of his profession. After leaving college, he must work in the hospitals to acquire the art of practically applying his knowledge.

"In journalism at present, the newspaper offices are the hospitals, but the students come to them knowing nothing of principles or theories. The newspaper hospital is extremely accommodating. It furnishes the patients for its young men to practise on, puts dissecting-knives into the hands of beginners who do not know an artery from a vermiform appendix, and pays them for the blunders by which they gradually teach themselves their profession."

THE DEMAND FOR SPECIALIZATION.

To the objection that even if a college education be desirable, everything needed is already provided in the existing colleges, so that no special department is required, Mr. Pulitzer replies:

"This criticism appears to have some force. It is possible that it may be advanced with sincerity by intelligent newspaper men who know nothing of colleges, or by intelligent college men who know nothing of newspapers. But it is superficial. It is true that many of the subjects needed for the general education of a journalist are already covered in college. But they are too much covered. The student of journalism may find one course in a law school, another in a graduate school of political science, another, at the same hour, in an undergraduate class at college, and another in a department of literature. So in general university courses we may find by-products that would meet the needs of the journalist. Why not divert, deflect, extract, concentrate, specialize, them for the journalist as a specialist?

"The spirit of specialization is everywhere. The lawyer is a real-estate lawyer, or a criminal lawyer, or a corporation lawyer, or possibly a criminal-corporation lawyer. Formerly, the family physician treated every ailment; now there are specialists for the eye, the ear, the throat, the teeth; for men, for women, for children; even for imaginary diseases; for every possible variety of practice. And there is specialization in the newspaper offices themselves. The editor of a New York paper confined to the editorial page is as much surprised as the reader when in the morning he reads the news columns. The news editor does not know what editorials there will be; the musical critic could not write of sporting events; the man with the priceless sense of humor could not record and interpret the movements of the stock market. The men in all these fields are specialists. The object of the College of Journalism will be to dig through this general scheme intended to cover every possible career or work-in life, every profession, to select and concentrate only upon the things which the journalist wants, and not to waste time on things that he does not want."

Mr. Pulitzer's ideas are very clearly defined as to certain subjects that should *not* be taught in a school of journalism. For example, he would not teach typesetting; he would not explain the methods of business management, nor "reproduce, with trivial versions, the course of a commercial college." This, he says, is no university work, and needs no endowment. In this respect he differs from the proposal of

President Eliot to include instruction in the business administration of a newspaper.

Mr. Pulitzer concludes his paper with a discussion of the matters that should be taught in the new College of Journalism, under the heads of style, law, ethics, literature, truth and accuracy, history, sociology, economics, statistics,

modern languages, physical science, the study of newspapers, the power of ideas, and the principles and methods of journalism.

It is impossible to summarize Mr. Pulitzer's points in this place, but the reader will find his entire article, as published in the *North American*, extremely suggestive and instructive.

ITALY AND AUSTRIA IN THE BALKAN PENINSULA.

AN anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) has been discussing the political position of eastern Europe under the heading "Italy and Austria on the Balkan Chessboard." He takes his text from an official utterance in the Austrian *Fremdenblatt* (Vienna) to the effect that however the war between Russia and Japan may turn out, Russia will always be strong enough to maintain her traditional prestige in the Balkan Peninsula; that, on the other hand, the loyalty of Austria-Hungary is such that it is impossible for her ever to take advantage of any position in which her old neighbor and ally may find herself to encroach upon their contiguous neutral territories. The writer is willing to take the word of the Viennese minister as to the peaceable intentions of Austria, backed as this is by the pronouncements of Menini, the vicar-apostolic at Sofia, an Italian by birth and sympathies. "Nevertheless," he adds, "certain circumstances have come to light which justify a feeling of uneasiness regarding Italian interests in Albania in case Russia should meet with a *débâcle* in the far East and thus leave Austria a free hand in the Balkans." He feels that something more explicit than the diplomatic declaration of the *Fremdenblatt* is necessary to reassure Italy in her control of the Adriatic.

"The other European powers should be called as witnesses to a definite compact, in which Austria agrees not to occupy Albania, nor to occupy any new point on the coast of the Adriatic." Albania "is a very vague geographical term; the Albanians are not a politically organized race; they live in groups, like islanders on a sea, at various parts of the peninsula. The compact should, therefore, contain a plain geographical delimitation. On this point the Treaty of Berlin was a failure; it secured the predominance of France on the Mediterranean, of Austria on the Adriatic. The danger is the possible annexation by Austria of the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar, over which her garrisons now extend, in accordance with the provisions of the Berlin treaty. . . . All the forces of Italian diplomacy should be strained to prevent an eventuality

which would not only of itself entail grave consequences to the peace of the Balkan Peninsula, but would disturb the present relations between Italy and Austria and have a serious effect upon the position of the government at present in power at Rome."

The contemplation of this possible annexation brings the writer to the real gist of his article, which is as palpably inspired by an Italian minister as that already quoted from the *Fremdenblatt* was by the Austrian chancellor.

"It should be understood that public opinion in Italy at the present moment sympathizes with Russia in her struggle in the far East, and no



ITALIAN IRREDENTISM.

AUSTRIAN EMPEROR: "What, my little fellow, are we, then, no longer allies?"—From *La Silhouette* (Paris).

idea is entertained of a possible participation of Italy in a quadruple alliance with England, the United States, and Japan,—an alliance which would go far to place Italy in the same position as Piedmont was among the allies of the Crimean War. It is proper, therefore, for Italians to turn a deaf ear to all enthusiastic utterances in favor of the Japanese, such as would cause an unfavorable impression in Russia and would put obstacles in the way of ever coming to a clear and friendly understanding with Austria."

He goes on to explain this by saying:

"Without taking too literally the profession of faith in Russia's intentions made by the Austrian chancellor in the *Fremdenblatt*, it is

quite certain that the situation of things in the Balkan Peninsula must ever depend upon the agreement between Austria and Russia. . . . On the other hand, as the proverb says, 'the occasion makes the thief,'—an axiom as true with regard to governments as to individuals,—and the political course of Italy should be so taken in the interests of peace, and out of consideration for the Balkan populations, as to avoid all such complications with Austria as may give her any cause or pretext for the annexation of the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar. And this principle should especially inspire Italian diplomatic dealings with the Albanians, the Bulgarians, and the Turkish Government."

RUSSIA AND THE PANAMA CANAL.

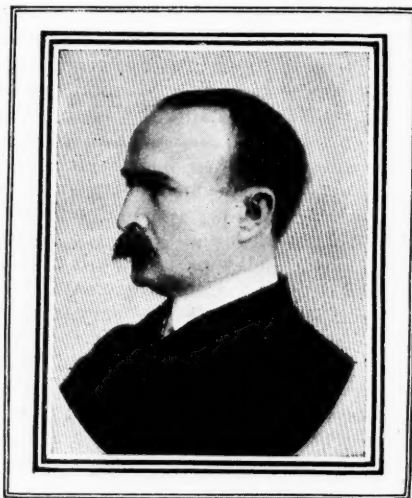
IN an address in Paris, on March 24, M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla informed a number of French statesmen and others interested in the transfer of the Panama Canal title to the United States that in 1894 he had held negotiations with the Russian minister of finance, Witte, with a view to Russia's completing the Panama Canal, or at least in helping France to do so. The *Nouvelle Revue* (Paris) prints M. Bunau-Varilla's address, under the title "The Question of Panama." The idea, he says, of asking aid from Russia came to him in the summer of 1894.

"I saw that Russia was beginning to construct the Trans-Siberian Railroad, and I formed the notion that the Panama Canal was, after all, nothing more than the complement of the Siberian road, just as the Suez Canal is the complement of the North American transcontinental lines. The Panama Canal is the last link in the route that passes through the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and is joined by the iron band across the European-Asiatic continent, as the Suez Canal is the last section of the navigation route of the earth that passes through the oceans and of the American transcontinental routes.

"This geographical conception led me to buy a ticket for Russia, to journey to St. Petersburg, and to ask M. Witte whether, considering the situation which had arisen in France, there was not an opportunity for the Russian Empire to manifest, in a definite and tangible form, its affection for France by aiding her to 'save the ship' in danger,—to float, again, the work at Panama.

"M. Witte said to me, 'What does the French Government think about it?' He said this to me under circumstances that permitted me to believe he was expressing, not merely his own

ideas, but those of the Czar Alexander as well. 'What does the French Government think about it? If it agrees with you, without engaging the Czar's promise I can tell you that any solution of a nature to help French interests in this mat-



M. BUNAU-VARILLA.

(Who tried to interest Russia in the Panama Canal in 1894.)

ter would be received in the most favorable manner by his majesty's government."

M. Bunau-Varilla returned to France and called on M. Casimir-Périer, who was then acting as president of the council and minister of foreign affairs, and then on M. Burdeau, the latter returning with him to Paris. One evening they both called on the minister of finance, and, continues M. Bunau-Varilla, M. Burdeau

said to him: "I have examined the question with M. Casimir-Périer. He will summon you in a few days in order to tell you that the French Government is favorable to joint action with Russia, and that, consequently, there is in your idea a foundation for reconstructing the Panama enterprise. To-day, I am speaking to you as your friend. In a few days you will know it officially."

The results were different from what had been anticipated. M. Bunau-Varilla continues:

"The fate of politics made the ministry fall before M. Casimir-Périer summoned him to give the answer; and, by a singular accumulation of fatalities, in about a year all the men who had in different ways been in contact or association with the idea had disappeared from the world's stage. The Czar Alexander was dead, M. Carnot was dead, M. Casimir-Périer

had given up politics after resigning the functions of president of the republic, under circumstances that prevented his taking further action, and it seemed that all who had been inclined to give help to Panama were paralyzed forever."

M. Bunau-Varilla recounts his campaign to arouse interest in the United States, and says many warm words of praise about the late Senator Hanna, to whom, he insists, more than to any other one person, is due the final choice by the American Government of the route of the Panama Canal. If it had not been, he says, for "the splendid efforts made by Senator Hanna, if the terrible eruption of Mont Pelée had not occurred in such a way as to attract unfavorable attention to the volcanic character of the Nicaragua country, the latter would have been definitely chosen and Panama lost forever."

THE "DECADENCE" OF FRANCE AGAIN.

IN the judgment of a number of thinkers and writers whose opinions are worth knowing, there is absolutely no evidence whatsoever that the French people are decadent. Last month, we quoted the reply of Professor Dubedout, of the University of Chicago, to the charge. An interesting and significant symposium of views is now being published in *L'Européen* (Paris). M. Louis Dumur, the editor of this international weekly, recently put the question "Is France in Its Decadence?" to a number of celebrities. The great majority of replies, particularly from non-Frenchmen, are in the negative. Carmen Sylva, the famous author-Queen of Roumania, replies as follows:

"'Decadent France' has produced Leconte de Lisle, Ernest Renan, Sully-Prudhomme, François Coppée, Anatole France, Melchior de Vogüé, Edmond Rostand, Léon Dierx, Heredia, Théophile Gautier, Flaubert, Pierre Loti, Richepin, Jean Aicard, Edmond Harancourt, Ephraïm Michel, Louis Bouilhet, Verlaine, Baudelaire, César Franck, Saint-Saëns, Fauré, Léon Moreau, etc., and, further, the sages, the painters, the sculptors, whom we all know. I did not mention Rodenbach and Maeterlinck because they were not born in France. Nevertheless, they write French. Accordingly, it is well if the decadent sky still shows such stars."

Björnstjerne Björnson, the Scandinavian novelist and dramatist, does not understand how any one can ask such a question about a people so "brimful of life" as the French. The boulevards and their debauchees, he reminds us, are

not French. Joseph Reinach, ex-member of the French Parliament and author of "The History of the Dreyfus Affair," sees proofs of inexhaustible vitality and wisdom in a nation which revived so quickly and thoroughly after the terrible war of 1870. "It has founded the republic, it has made public instruction accessible to all classes, and it has given a magnificent start to all works of charity and solidarity, as well as to all public labors. It has fully paid the debt of its colonies. It has rendered inefficient the factions of dictatorship, of anarchy, and of reaction. It has again taken its rank in the European concert. It has made the Dreyfus affair more a moral reform than a political one."

THE JUDGMENT OF MAX NORDAU.

Max Nordau, the famous writer on subjects of national and individual degeneracy, declares the question itself to be "blasphemous." His opinion is worth quoting.

"There are in France social groups,—or classes, if you please,—which obviously are decadent, and that is good for your country; but France herself is moving rapidly upward, and witnesses, at present, one of the most brilliant eras of her history.

"Economically, France enjoys a marvelous prosperity. She has overcome by her energy and tenacity the terrible danger of phylloxera, a danger which would have utterly ruined, and perhaps unretrievably, any other country; she has understood how to adapt herself to a protec-

tionism which could have strangled her ; she has reconciled by her good taste the patronage which she was about to lose in her market ; she has increased, in a few years, the average production of wheat. . . .

"Politically, she has regained the prestige of her most glorious days. If one no longer fears her because she is known to be peaceful, one respects her, one admires her and solicits her favor. Russia is happy to have her as an ally. Italy and England seek her friendship. Spain is approaching her. The United States treats her as a friend of first rate. Her position in the world is enviable indeed.

"As to territorial expanse, her boundaries are wider and richer than during the time of Napoleon at the height of his power. Her flag flies over the most beautiful part of Asia. Her African empire, scarcely separated from the metropolis, cannot be compared in importance and accessibility to the Asiatic possessions of Russia.

"Morally and intellectually, she takes first rank among the various peoples. Her science, her art, her literature, are superior to those of most of her rivals, and she does not rank inferior to any one of them. *f* She enjoys the great fortune once more to march in the van of mankind waging a struggle against obscurantism and reaction, and she seems to be bent, through an enormous effort of which any other nation would at present be incapable, on the completion of the work of the encyclopædists and of the great Revolution.

"France, a sovereign and noble nation and a powerful democracy, works for the emancipation of human thought and for the legal organization of a national solidarity. *f* She is to-day what other peoples will be to-morrow, or much later,—very much later.

"The sole black point on her horizon might be the reduction of the increase of her birth-rate, but even here she seems to be ahead of the times. This sociological phenomenon accompanies, throughout, the progress of civilization, and France should perhaps here also lead other nations. When generalized, the phenomenon ceases to be a disturbing factor. It simply seems to be the expression of the fact that in consequence of the nation's intellectual development reason and foresight extend their influence upon a domain where in a lower stage of civilization blind instinct alone holds sway."

The supremacy of France, says Émile Verhaeren, a famous Belgian poet, is centered in her art. "There she reigns in all her greatness, and all other nations submit to her leadership."

Charles Gide, the well-known French econo-

mist, professor at the University of Paris, thinks that only foreigners should express opinions on this subject. Nevertheless, he continues, "if we limit ourselves to statements of fact, we have the right, according to statistics, to affirm that no part of France is on the path of retrogression. The curve of her evolution remains ascending."

A RUSSIAN OPINION.

The celebrated Russian writer on psychology and sociology, J. Noviców, of Odessa, declares that one can speak of the decadence of France "only by a perversity of the human mind that would attach all the most complex social phenomena to one single cause." In agriculture, industry, science, the arts, and belles-lettres, he reminds us, France is not inferior to any of her rivals. Her only inferiority manifests itself in war. But this "contradicts the most obvious facts." He explains :

"France, during the last two centuries, has come out vanquished from her great campaigns against her neighbors. The fight of the eighteenth century against England ended in defeat, and cost her India and Canada. The fight against the European coalition during the Revolution and the Empire ended in another defeat, and cost her, not alone all the acquisitions of the time of the Directory and of Napoleon, but also a piece of territory which had belonged to her kings. The fight against Germany was ended by the treaty of Frankfort, and involved the loss of Alsace-Lorraine. One is therefore justified in saying definitively that France has shown herself inferior in these struggles, but, on the other hand, it would be ridiculous to use such an expression with regard to one of the most warlike nations of the entire world, which counts hundreds of most decisive victories, of which we will only mention a few,—Rivoli, Marengo, Hohenlinden, Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, Friedland, Wagram, Borodino, l'Alma, Inkerman, Magenta, and Solferino. However it may be, France of to-day has acquiesced in a defeat, and for this reason alone she is said to be in decadence.

"It is true, however, that one should appreciate still another reason,—her feeble birth-rate,—but this phenomenon appears also in the race that is generally proclaimed as the most flourishing one, the Anglo-Saxons of the United States ; consequently, if the Americans should *not* be regarded as degenerating on account of their feeble birth-rate, why should the French for the same reason ? There is a lack of logical consistency which proves that we have to deal with a preconceived notion, and it leads us back again

to the military defeat. Indeed, if the French had not been vanquished on the battlefields, their reduced birth-rate would be considered no more as an evidence of decadence with them than with the Americans. Otherwise, the small birth-rate is a phenomenon which seems to make its appearance in proper season in all civilized countries, and France is presumably in this respect only in advance of other nations. I have said that in the midst of her defeats France has gained the most dashing victories; but if her inferiority in the art of war should be irreparable

and definite, would that prove her decadence? By no means! War is one of those numerous forms of activity which develop a nation. It is a profound error to consider it as a *résumé* of the entire national life. France has, as the first one, rid herself of her medieval swaddling-clothes. Both in political institutions and as to religious ideas, France marches at the head of the nations, and in numerous respects by far surpasses them. To speak of her decadence under these conditions is only evidence of an astonishing frivolity or a still more astonishing hypocrisy."

CHINESE LABOR IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINES.

THE storm of protest aroused in the British reviews by the proposition to introduce Chinese coolie labor into the mines of the Rand has not yet subsided.

Mr. John Burns, M.P., contributes to the *Independent Review* a stirring sermon against the iniquities of the Chinese labor ordinance. "Slavery in South Africa" is the title of Mr. Burns' paper, and he sums the matter up as follows:

"It is no answer to urge, in defense of this crowning infamy, the plea of 'regrettable necessity.' This is the coward's plea, the criminal's defense, the wanton's excuse, the statesman's shame, the prelate's sin. This evasion of human rights and national duty, apart from perversion of our noblest tradition, is a denial of our responsibility to inferior races, whom we can only claim to govern because, in so ruling, we substitute for the slavery of savages the free consent of the kindly governed.

"Are we as a nation to incur the greater moral, ethical, social, and political damage to the fabric of the commonwealth in order that two British colonies shall be dominated by Jews, peopled by Asiatics, and be sustained by forced labor in convict compounds, tempered by a weekly pass to brothels and gambling-saloons, and a ticket-of-leave for forty-eight hours to an opium den?"

Mr. Burns shows by figures that it is perfectly possible to employ white labor in the mines. He condemns fiercely the treatment allotted to the Kaffirs at Kimberley, and says that "if the Chinese coolie has the same occupational mortality and risk of fatal disease and accidental death as the Kaffir, it will mean that, of every 1,000, only 750 to 800 will return to China at the end of three years; at the end of five, 550 to 650 per 1,000."

The death-rate at the mines has been from 70 to 106 per 1,000, whereas among blacks working on Boer farms it is only from 8 to 15 per 1,000.

With decent treatment and wages of from \$12.50 to \$15 per month, one hundred and fifty thousand blacks could be depended on with increased regularity.

The Aim of the Randlords.

An unsigned article in the *Westminster Review* defines the aims of the mine-owners as follows:

"The truth is, the prospect of the additional two and one-half millions of dividends each year made the mouths of the Rand magnates water, and they were willing to do anything—or anybody—in order to obtain it. Their first objective was 'to secure a full, cheap, regular, submissive supply of Kaffir and white labor.' 'Asiatic labor' was but an afterthought. Kimberley, with its huge octopus-like monopoly and its 'compound' slavery system, was the industrial ideal of these 'patriots' with the outlandish patronymics; and they were minded to improve, if possible, even on that system. 'Good government,' in the eyes of these gentlemen, meant the abolition of the Transvaal mining laws, the most liberal in the world. Then, as the De Beers Consolidated Mines swallowed up and absorbed all interests in Kimberley, so the Consolidated Gold Fields Company would swallow up all interests in the Rand, and be absolutely master of the situation."

The Black Peril.

According to Mr. Roderick Jones, who writes in the *Nineteenth Century*, South Africa's real peril is not yellow, but black. Mr. Jones complains that in Cape Colony both parties encourage and flatter the black vote, and that that vote will soon threaten seriously the supremacy of the whites. There are more blacks than there are whites attending school in Cape Colony at present; the result is that the educational and property qualifications needed for the franchise

will soon be attained by large numbers of Kaffirs, with the result that Cape Colony will be ruled by black men. Mr. Jones urges immediate withdrawal of voting power from all colored persons, and thinks that the federation of the South African colonies should be accomplished on the basis of leveling down the condition of the Cape Colony blacks to that of the Kaffirs in the other colonies.

Chinese Labor Defended.

Mr. Charles Sydney Goldman, writing in the same review, defends Chinese labor as absolutely

essential to the Transvaal. His article, however, is little more than a careful summary of reasons already alleged in defense of the measure.

Writing in the *National Review* for April, Mr. Ernest Crawley predicts that the experiment of Chinese labor, if carried out with due care, will prove as successful in the Transvaal as it did in British Columbia, as in no other way is it possible fully to develop the enormous resources of the mines, to make it possible to obtain Kaffir laborers for the railways and the farms, or to open up the new colony as a profitable field for British emigration.

FRENCH AMERICA AND THE LOUISIANA CENTENARY.

PIERRE DE COUBERTIN cannot resist a slight dig at Americans in the introduction to his article on the Louisiana Centenary in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Why is it, he asks, that the Americans, who are usually in advance of other peoples, are always behindhand in the celebration of their national events? Columbus discovered America in 1492, but the Yankees celebrated the four-hundredth anniversary in 1893. Louisiana was sold to the Union in 1803, but the Americans are holding a fair to celebrate it in 1904, and at St. Louis, which is not in Louisiana. He wonders if the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1805 will be really celebrated at Portland in 1905. He thinks it more likely to be in 1906. His article is really an extended review of a new French book, "The Last Years of French Louisiana," by Baron Marc de Villiers de Terrage. The early history of our vast, great West, comprised under the name Louisiana, from the days of the Spanish explorers until its sale to the United States, with references to the reasons of state which impelled the great Napoleon to part with the territory, are sketched rapidly by M. Coubertin in his review. He makes a few original observations, among which is the statement that Pontiac was the greatest of the Indian race, and that he represented to the red men what Booker T. Washington represents to the negro. The First

Consul, he declares, parted with Louisiana because he was ignorant of its resources and political importance. Indeed, this writer charges France through all her history with inexcusable and almost criminal ignorance regarding her colonies. Here, he says, you have the secret of all our (the French) colonial weaknesses.

"We have had our valiant explorers, we have had our faithful colonists, our pioneers and merchants, but what we have always lacked,—our nation as well as our leaders,—are the proper knowledge and understanding of our colonies,—their importance, their size, their wealth, their interests, their future. As to this information, we have been slowly, incompletely, vaguely, informed, and it has been so difficult and so slow, this information, in coming that our opinion is never ready for action to bring about the necessary results."

He concludes by expressing the hope that "a nation which possesses a Shakespeare and a Washington will do itself the honor to erect a monument to the heroes of French America,—a monument upon which the great names of Montcalm and La Salle shall take first rank among the workers in that colossal enterprise of which the fragments are visible everywhere along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and which attest the power and universality of our [French] national genius."

THE PERIL OF THE ICEBERGS.

THE iceberg is an ever-present cause of terror to the mariner of the North Atlantic. Some years ago, the great liners sailing from New York gave up their accustomed course across the Grand Banks, choosing a safer route

to the southward. That the risk was not wholly removed by this action is clearly shown in an article contributed to *McClure's* for June by Mr. P. T. McGrath, of St. John's, Newfoundland, who describes the danger of encounters

with icebergs as the greatest of old ocean's perils.

"As the passengers on some crack flyer throng her rail on a glorious day to view and snap-shot the dazzling spectacle of one of these stately wanderers drifting slowly south in lonely grandeur, a grime smile will probably flicker on the captain's countenance as he hears the exclamations of delight and recalls the fact that only the previous night, in a dense fog, as the passengers lay sleeping, the ship and all on board barely escaped colliding with one of those floating crystal islands. Human science and ingenuity have never devised any contrivance to detect these silent foes; the mightiest fabrics constructed by human hands are frail as eggshells against them, and they have wrought more ruin than any other obstruction that threatens the traffic of the ocean."

Seven-eighths of the floating berg is carried below the water-line; hence, the largest of them, passing southward in the winter and spring, ground on the Newfoundland coast and the Grand Banks. From this region, indeed, the bergs are never absent.

"Nature offers few more impressive sights than these beautiful ivory sea-castles, endowed with every graceful and fantastic outline, and often five hundred feet high and half a mile long. They excite the admiration of all beholders when viewed from a position of safety; but no object is more dreaded by the sailor when, in the inky blackness of a midnight storm, the blinding fury of a snow-squall, or the ghastly shroud of a sodden fog, his ship is crossing the ice-belt on the Banks. For the bergs are thickest there in the path of the steamers, unwarning in their approach and deadly in their embrace, and woe to the ship, however stanch, that tests herself against the towering crystal cliffs."

Mr. McGrath records several instances of steamship collisions with icebergs in which the passengers had the narrowest of escapes from death. One of the most remarkable cases was that of the Guion liner *Arizona*, in 1879.

"She was then the greyhound of the Atlantic and the largest ship afloat—5,750 tons—except the *Great Eastern*. Leaving New York in November for Liverpool, with 509 souls aboard, she was coursing across the Banks, with fair weather, but dark, when, near midnight, about 250 miles east of St. John's, she rammed a monster ice-island at full speed—18 knots. Terrific was the impact and indescribable the alarm. The passengers, flung from their berths, made for the deck as they stood, though some were so injured as to be helpless; and the calls of these forward, added to the shrieks of the fren-

zied mob of half-clad men and women who charged for the boats, made up a pandemonium. Wild cries arose that the ship was sinking, for she had settled by the head, and with piteous appeals and despairing exclamations the passengers urged the boats over, that they might escape the death they thought inevitable. But the crew were well in hand, the officers maintained order, and a hurried examination being made, the forward bulkhead was seen to be safe. The welcome word was passed along that the ship, though sorely stricken, would still float until she could make a harbor. The vast white terror had lain across her course, stretching so far each way that when descried it was too late to alter the helm. Its giant shape filled the foreground, towering high above the masts, grim and gaunt and ghastly, immovable as the adamantine buttresses of a frowning seaboard, while the liner lurched and staggered like a wounded thing in agony as her engines slowly drew her back from the rampart against which she had flung herself.

"She was headed for St. John's at slow speed, so as not to strain the bulkhead too much, and arrived there thirty-six hours later. That little port—the crippled ship's hospital—has seen many a strange sight come in from the sea, but never a more astounding spectacle than that which she presented the Sunday forenoon she entered there.

"Her deck and forepart were cumbered with great fragments of ice, weighing over two hundred tons in all, shattered from the berg when she struck, being so wedged into the fractures and gaps as to make it unwise to start them until she was docked. The whole population of St. John's lined the water-front to witness her arrival. Her escape was truly marvelous, and the annals of marine adventure may be searched in vain for its equal. From top-rail to keelson her bows were driven in, the gaping wound fully twenty feet wide, and the massive plates and ribs crumpled up like so many pieces of cardboard. All the ironwork was twisted into fantastic forms, the oak planking was smashed into splinters, the beams and stanchions which backed the bow were shattered and torn, and her stem-piece had been wrenched off when she had bitten into the berg." The wonder is that she was not ripped apart and sent to the bottom.

HOW THE "PORTIA" CLIMBED A BERG.

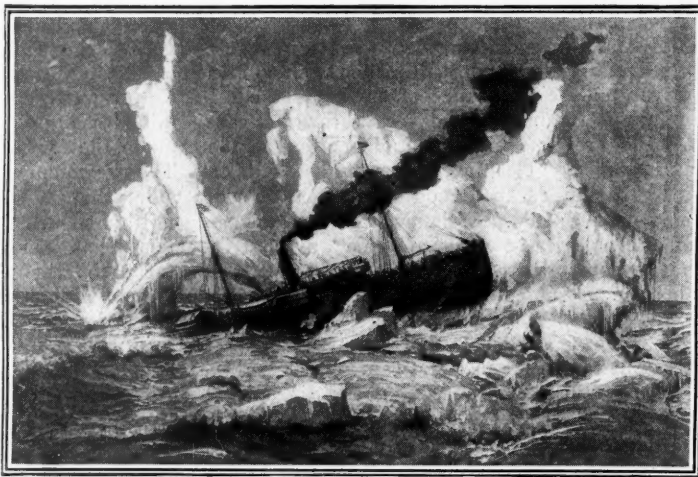
But the *Portia's* story was more wonderful still. The *Portia* was a steamer that plied between New York and Newfoundland. Her captain, at the date of the incident narrated by Mr. McGrath, was Francis Ash, an experienced navi-

gator, of St. John's, who had been ice-pilot of Schley's squadron when it rescued the survivors of the Greely Arctic expedition in 1884. The story follows:

"In June, 1893, while off the Newfoundland coast, with many tourists aboard, she sighted on a clear day a gleaming northern monarch the magnificent proportions of which excited the admiration of the passengers, who had never seen the like before. Captain Ash estimated its length at 800 feet and its height at 200, and, with its fantastic pinnacles and crystal sides giving back a flood of rainbow tints, it is not surprising that the delighted onlookers begged the skipper to go near, so that they might snap-shot or sketch this ocean colossus at close range. Suddenly, as the ship slowly advanced, a gunshot from the berg, a jar was felt, the ship grated heavily, a low, rumbling sound was heard, the berg quivered and split asunder, and, to the horror of all on board, it was realized that the ship was 'aground' on part of the icy isle. As this mighty fragment sought a new equilibrium in the ocean, its submerged base, being tossed upward, caught the *Portia* as in a cradle, or dock, and lifted her clear out of the water.

"For a moment or two, the situation of the ship and those aboard was critical beyond compare. She lay, nearly upright, in a shelving section of the berg, and if this completed its somersault she and her personnel must meet instant destruction. The horror of it blanched

every cheek and stilled every tongue. Fortunately, the weight of hull and cargo checked the



THE "PORTIA'S" STRANGE ADVENTURE.

up-ending motion and sent the mass settling back again. A huge wave created by the cleavage swept over the fragment holding the *Portia* and launched her back into her native element, with bottom scarred and bruised, but otherwise uninjured.

"Though the story seems incredible, yet it is undeniably true. As the *Portia* approached the berg she ran on a submerged ledge of it. This disturbed the equilibrium of the main body, and the ice below the surface being honey-combed, or 'rotten,' from the effect of the salt water and the summer sun, the shock caused it to turn over, and in doing so it split apart and she was caught on one portion."

The escape seems almost miraculous.

DAMMING THE THAMES RIVER.

A GREAT dam, similar in some respects to the Nile Barrage, is proposed for the Thames River, with a view to the removal of certain disabilities now suffered by the port of London. The leading features of the project, as outlined by Mr. T. W. Barber, are set forth in the May number of *Page's Magazine* (London). According to this description, the dam is to be placed at Gravesend, thus converting the Thames between that point and Teddington into a great fresh-water lake forty-six miles long. The accompanying illustration shows what the

general appearance of the dam would be. A wide road will run along its top, and a tunnel beneath will provide for railroad traffic. The structure proposed consists mainly of mass concrete and granite facing.

"Part of the water flowing over the dam would provide electric power for working the locks, which are four in number, and also a complete equipment of power capstans and gear. The whole of the traffic would be regulated from a pilot-tower forming a permanent feature of the barrage."

WHAT ABOUT THE SEWAGE PROBLEM?

"One of the first considerations naturally bound up with this scheme is the health of London; but it is urged that the action of the tides upon the Thames, so far from being health-giving, is entirely detrimental. Mr. W. P. Birch has shown that the action of the tides keeps the river continually saturated with about forty-five days' soilage, and, says Mr. Barber, 'they back up twice daily the natural drainage of the river for five hours, and keep it in solution and circulation for forty-five days before removing it, the effect being exactly similar to backing up in a sewer.'

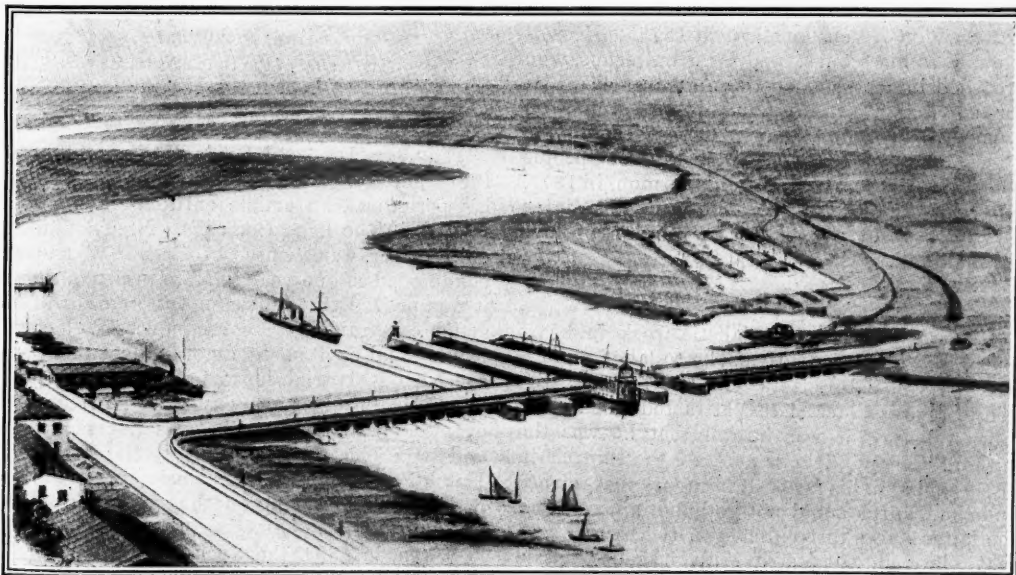
"In place of this, Mr. Barber's scheme would stop all tides at the dam, the inclosed water area having numerous affluents—chiefly Teddington Weir—and only one outlet. Thus, the water would have a slow downward current, never reversing, so that everything entering it would pass downward to the dam. It is thus proposed to obtain by one work a navigable depth of water varying from 65 feet at Gravesend to 32 feet at London Bridge without dredging or any interference with the river bottom or banks such as that proposed by the Royal Commission on the Port of London, which Mr. Barber says cannot be carried out.

"The cost of the dam is set down at £3,658,000 [\$18,290,000], including compensations and other contingencies, while the annual sav-

ing in dredging, repairs, cost of operating dock entrances, time of vessels, towage, etc., is estimated at £850,100 [\$4,250,500] annually. It is also urged that the scheme will form the basis of an effective water-supply, obviating an expenditure of £24,000,000 [\$120,000,000] in this direction; also rendering unnecessary an expenditure of £30,000,000 [\$150,000,000] on the purchase of docks, and £7,000,000 [\$35,000,000] on improving the docks and dredging the river—total, £61,000,000 [\$305,000,000].

WHAT SUCH A DAM WOULD ACCOMPLISH.

"The immediate advantages to shipping promised by Mr. Barber may be summarized as follows: The possibility of ships approaching London Bridge at all times, and of remaining at one level for loading or unloading alongside the quays; an immense saving consequent upon the dock entrances being left open; absence of mud from the docks and back waters; prevention of floods from exceptional tides; reduced cost of towage and repairing banks; control of the river, etc., and greatly increased safety of navigation. Owing to the removal of all vessels from mid-stream, it is anticipated that there would be excellent opportunity for pleasure traffic, boating, sailing, and fishing, while last, but not least, in this attractive list may be mentioned the possible provision of an efficient steamboat service with fixed piers."



THE PROPOSED THAMES DAM AT GRAVESEND.

DOMELA NIEUWENHUIS, A GREAT DUTCH SOCIALIST.

FOR the past quarter of a century, one of the most remarkable of Dutchmen, F. Domela Nieuwenhuis, has been the father and moving spirit of socialism in Holland. In March, 1879, Dr. Nieuwenhuis resigned his position as a Lutheran minister to devote his entire life to the advance of socialism and the interests of the Dutch working classes. In the *Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem), there is an extended character sketch of Dr. Nieuwenhuis, from which we condense the following:

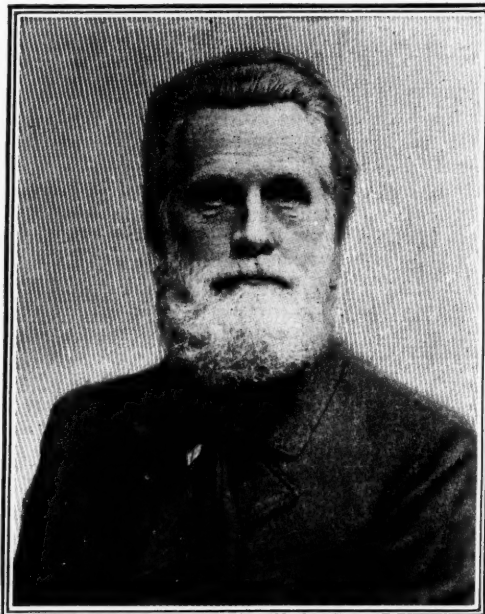
F. Domela Nieuwenhuis, the son of a Danish immigrant, was born on January 31, 1846. He studied theology at his father's request, and became an ordained minister at the age of twenty-five. In speaking of himself, he states that he never could, even from his infancy, take for granted what he was taught without searching and thinking. He studied the works of Feuerbach, which undoubtedly had a special influence on his later mental development; but he confesses in a short autobiography that he was brought up in the fear of God, and that he suffered much before he could fully renounce the faith of his forefathers. He made his first step toward radicalism in the church where he acted as minister of a Lutheran congregation, in Beverwijk, and with the approval of the church council he abolished the celebration of Ascension Day. When appointed as a minister at The Hague, his initiatory sermon was to have been preached on Ascension Day, in 1875. He was excused at his request, and Dr. Knotternus, who preached in his place on that day, attacked him for so doing. He replied in a sermon on "Anger," in which he stated that those who arouse anger in this world are the very people who improve the world. In his sermon, in 1877, on "The Coming Religion," he outlined a divine service without a creed,—the religion of love for mankind.

HIS WORK FOR SOCIALISM.

He was devoted to socialistic work in heart and soul. He frequently spoke to labor unions, and his "Social Letters" in *De Werkmansbode* (The Laborer's Messenger) attracted general attention before it was known that he was the author. He publicly renounced the Church in 1879, saying in his farewell sermon "that science and the Church could not go hand-in-hand, that the latter shows in conflict with the former, and that as he could not destroy with one hand what he built up with the other, his conscience forbade him to be longer the pastor of his congregation."

Becoming more and more convinced that his

socialistic work should not be confined to lectures and speeches, and that he must contribute with his pen to socialistic literature, he founded the periodical *Recht voor Allen* (Justice for All). The first copy was published in March, 1879, and



F. DOMELA NIEUWENHUIS.
(The leader of the Dutch Socialists.)

soon became an enduring monument of the labor movement in The Netherlands.

The years 1886 and 1887 were the most eventful of his life. There appeared at that time, in his periodical, an article entitled "De Koning Komt" ("The King Comes"). Nieuwenhuis, as chief editor, was accused of *lèse-majesté*, and was condemned to one year in state prison, although it was proved that he was not the author of the article. Afraid of the consequences of the bitter feeling and excitement among the Labor party caused by this trial, he was allowed to leave the prison before his time expired. Through this event, he gained the sympathies of his followers, and was elected,—the first Socialist,—to the Dutch Parliament. His exclusive position there had but little bearing on the party, and he was not reelected.

When, in 1894, the Socialist party split into the "parliamentary" and the "revolutionary" factions, Nieuwenhuis joined the ranks of the latter, remaining until 1897, when he took an an-

archistic position and founded the party of "Free Socialists," which at the present time is composed of forty-five groups. The paper of this political party, *De Vrije Socialist* (The Free Socialist), is a mere continuation of the *Justice for All*, of which he is still chief editor.

Nieuwenhuis' character has been praised by all his friends. Vliegen describes him as a man of great energy and will-power, gifted with a fascinating presence that attracts the masses. He leads a model life, is blameless in every respect, and is a strict temperance man.

Among his writings deserve to be mentioned "The French Civil War in 1871," "How Our Country Is Ruled on Paper and How in Reality," "The Future State of Society," "Was Jesus in Favor of or Against Socialism?" "Is Not Socialism an Error?" and the translation of Karl Marx', "Capital and Labor."

NIEUWENHUIS' OPINION ON THE FAR-EASTERN WAR.

It may be of interest here to quote his opinion on the present Russo-Japanese war, which he gave recently in the *Free Socialist*.

"The greatest evil in this war would be Russia's victory. It must be well understood that

in speaking of Russia we mean the official Russia, the empire of the Czar. This represents the highest state of reaction, and is of the greatest danger to any progressive movement. It is a model of the most petrified and unimprovable tyranny, and its victory would bring on a reactionary period which would be felt throughout the world. We therefore say that the annihilation of Russia's power is the only condition for progress. If Japan succeed, she will make herself meritorious for humanity, without intending or knowing anything about it herself, although we well know that the motives for this war were low, and were based on commercial interest only. Evil can thus bring forth something good. A final victory of the Japanese over Czarism is of no less importance than the victory of the ancient Greeks at Marathon, who were thus successful in bringing the Persian power to a standstill, and prevented the barbarization of Europe by Asia. At the present time, the barbarizing of Asia by Russia should be prevented. Japan's victory means the modernization of Asia; and although Japan leaves much to be desired, it is still more preferable than the bestializing of mankind by the Russian bear."

A FRENCH TRIBUTE TO THE CIVILIZING INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN MISSIONS.

DESPITE the charges that can be justly brought against Christian missionaries, and the political capital which their home governments are so often tempted to make out of their labors, the Christian mission in foreign lands has been, and is to-day, a mighty civilizing force. This is the verdict of M. Gaston Bonet-Maury, professor of the Protestant faculty of theology of the College of France. In two numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Bonet-Maury considers the Christian missions in their rôle of civilizers. He condemns unsparingly the intervention of France in Tahiti, that of England and her allies in Samoa or the Philippines, and that of Germany in China. There have been, however, he admits, cases in which missionaries have brought about the paramount influence of their country among heathen natives in a proper and beneficial way. Such cases were those of the Moravian Brothers, who, by their apostolic devotion and example of hard work, have made Germany beloved to the negroes of the Antilles and to the Eskimos of Labrador; the Picpus Fathers, in the Marquesas Islands and the Sandwich Islands; the Plöermel Brothers,

among the negroes of Senegal; the Fathers of the Holy Ghost, in the Sudan, and the White Fathers (Dominican) in Algeria and equatorial Africa, who have made the natives love France.

In general, the civilizing influence of Christian missionaries is made evident in two ways,—their scientific work, and their social and moral influence. Taking up the scientific work and of the foreign missionaries all over the world, prefacing his remarks with the statement that "war, religious proselyting, and commerce have been most powerful agencies in the exploration of the world," he goes through the entire list of missionaries who have contributed to the advancement of science. We condense his exhaustive study of this point.

From La Pérouse and Franklin to Lamy, there have been many missionary martyrs in the cause of geographical science. The explorer remains but a short time in a country; the missionary lives there for years. He is consequently better equipped for scientific work. The Jesuits Ricci and Secchi were eminent astronomers. In the thirteenth century, it was a Pope and a King of France who sent civilizing monks among the

Turks, just then invading Europe. The Franciscans and Dominicans from Portugal and France, by their great learning, exerted a powerful influence upon the Grand Khan. One of the Lazarists, Père Huc, later traveled in Tibet and China, and his works are authorities. Père Armand David also made three voyages to China, and was helpful in the correction of the maps of that region. Pigneau de Béhaine, a French bishop, two centuries ago, founded the French influence in Indo-China, and Père Chevalier, for his hydrographic work at Tonquin, was presented, in 1898, with a medal by the French Geographical Society. But the great work of French Catholic missions in the far East is the observatory of Zi-ka-wei, founded by the Jesuit fathers Lélec and Colombel, which has rendered splendid service to astronomy and meteorology. Their observations have been used by Sir William Hart, since 1898, to determine the approach of typhoons throughout China, Manchuria, and Korea. The orthodox Russian church has also furnished scientific missionaries in this region, the best known of whom is the Archimandrite Palladius.

The Protestant missionaries came later than the Catholics, but they have made important contributions to science. The Rev. Edward Robinson wrote a work on the geography of Palestine (1838), and Dr. F. W. Holland one on the Sinai Peninsula (1856). Three societies for the exploration of the Holy Land are practically directed by the missionaries,—the English Palestine Exploration Fund, the German Palestine Society, and the American Palestine Exploration Society. In Borneo and Sumatra, the American, German, and Dutch missionaries have thoroughly explored their fields of work.

From the time of the early Catholic missionaries in Africa to David Livingstone, there have been many names identified with exploration and science in all portions of the Dark Continent. Catholic orders, Protestant missionaries, and French Huguenots have opened up Africa, South America, and North America to the world of civilization and progress. In the history of Canada and the United States, such names as Hennepin, Lejeune, Marquette, Joliet, Roger Williams, and John Eliot are eloquent tributes to the zeal and heroism of missions. Norwegian pastors explored and mapped Greenland. The continent of Australia was explored by an English Catholic and an American Protestant missionary; and the islands of the South Sea bear the impress of the work of such men as Taylor, Douarre, Williams, Ellis, Chalmers, and Couppe. So much for geography.

As linguists and dictionary-makers, such

names as Ulphilas, the apostle of the Goths, and Cyril, the apostle of the Slavs, head the list of missionary effort. Then follow works on Chinese literature by the Catholic, Zottoli, and the Protestants, Gützlaff and Faber. Dr. James Legge, the Scotch missionary who spent thirty years at Hongkong, became such a sinologue that he was afterward made professor of Chinese in the University of Oxford. Merson, in Burma; Ziegenbalg, in Malabar; Boré, in Persia; Cœurdoux, Barthélemy, and William Jones, in India; Bollig and Gismondi, in Syria; Lepsius, in Egypt; Isenberg, in Abyssinia; Cust and Koeller, in equatorial Africa; Hans Egede, in Greenland; John Eliot, among the American Indians; Pedro, in Mexico and South America; and Janssen, Law, and Gordon, in the South Seas,—these are men whose names history will write high for their contributions to the world's knowledge of the languages of strange or unknown peoples.

GREAT MORAL UPLIFTERS.

The moral and social influence of Christian missions, M. Bonet-Maury declares, is worthy of the greatest praise. In the first place, entirely aside from the moral elevation brought about in the individual heathen, "for whose wooden idols they have succeeded in substituting the image of the true God," there are a multitude of points in respect to which inestimable benefit is conferred upon the natives by the missions. The fetich-worshippers are generally lazy and impoverished. They labor for the next meal, and do not understand precautions for the future,—“when a bad harvest comes, an entire people is swept away by famine.” Despite this, they are proud, and consider themselves superior to Europeans. “This pride prevents them from improving their ways of life; and, in the cases of the Arabs and the Malays, we must add to this lying and trickery.”

The two chief pagan vices, against the ravages of which every religion but Christianity is powerless to combat, are intemperance and the social evil. This French writer traces the terrible effects of alcohol on the natives of Africa and Oceania and the red men of North America; of opium on the Chinese and the Hindus, and of sexual immorality upon Mongolian peoples and the Hindus, partly sanctioned by the so-called “sacred prostitution.” The Christian missionaries have always fought these vices from the beginning of their labors. They persuade the native peoples, if they are nomads, to settle down and cultivate the soil, to free their slaves, while the missionaries educate the illiterate and endeavor to dispel their superstitions. They persuade the natives to work regularly,

and endeavor to arouse them out of their apathy. The school of the Fathers of the Holy Ghost at Bagamayo, in Zanguebar, and the professional schools opened by the Protestant missions at Lovedale, in South Africa, have succeeded, "bit by bit, in persuading the heathen to attach himself to the soil, to respect the property of his neighbor, and to develop a love of justice and truth." In the struggle against alcoholism, the missionaries invoke the aid of the civil authorities and ecclesiastical discipline. "If they have the ear of the government, they try to obtain a prohibition of the sale of opium and of alcoholic drinks; for example, the Mikado of Japan, upon their petition, has prohibited the importation of opium into Formosa and Khama. Besides personal effort in the direction of abstinence, the missionaries refuse the sacraments of the Church to drunkards, and care for the worst of these in special hospitals."

It is very difficult to fight polygamy and the social evil, especially in Mohammedan countries, where plural marriage is sanctioned by religion. The missionaries, however, have succeeded in bringing about the abolition of public prostitution in several Asiatic countries. In the Presidency of Madras, in 1895, with the aid of the British viceroy, the anti-Nautch movement was successful. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union of the United States succeeded in bringing about the suppression of the *djouro*s, the Japanese immoral dance, and its attendant evils in California, and in 1897, after seven years of petition to the Japanese Parliament, the Chamber of Peers gave its sanction to the abolition of this evil. Suicide is becoming less frequent among the Chinese who are in touch with the missionaries, because of the greater respect for human life.

EDUCATIONAL WORK OF MISSIONS.

This French writer recounts the labors of a number of illustrious native converts to Christianity who have been stimulating examples to their compatriots. He refers especially to Maka and his missionary labors in the Gilbert Islands and the Hawaiian Islands, and to that noble high-caste Hindu woman, Pundita Ramabai, who has done so much to better the lot of all the women of India. In general education, the work of the missionaries is too well known to need reference here. The schools and colleges for young girls have been especially successful, and a number of Asiatic women—Japanese, Chinese, Hindu, and Persian—have made brilliant successes as physicians, lawyers, and scientists. The tone of family life has been raised, not only as a result of the preaching of the missionaries, but as a re-

sult of the example set by their own conjugal purity. War has been lessened. The history of the long struggle for the abolition of slavery is replete with evidences and examples of missionary zeal and heroism. Missionaries of France and England were chiefly instrumental in persuading the Conference of Brussels, in 1889, to abolish slavery in more than one part of Africa. The French Dominican fathers have, for ten years, pursued a policy of liberating slaves in Africa and persuading them to form new towns under the instruction and supervision of the missionaries. It was the missionaries who brought about the reforms (such as they have been) in the Congo and in Burma, and the amelioration of prison conditions in Japan.

PUBLIC SANITATION.

Some of the most admirable results of missionary work are evident in the matter of public sanitation.

"Not only have these evangelists, by precept and the example of their own lives, introduced and spread a knowledge of bodily hygiene, but they have also organized medical assistance in all places where it is needed. Following the example of the Catholic bishops and the Hospitaler orders of the Middle Ages, the missionaries of all denominations, Dominican priests and American Protestants, Sisters of Charity and Deaconesses of Kaiserwerth, have founded hospitals and established dispensaries, taking care of infirm old people, who, especially in Africa, are abandoned, and looking after neglected children, of whom the greater part, especially in China, are condemned to death or prostitution. . . . To Scotch and American missionaries belongs the glory of having formed a large corps of well-trained woman doctors, infirmity professors and deaconesses, who can penetrate into the most sacred corners of the harems and zenanas, and carry there, with the consolation of the Gospel, the relief of a medical art which is worthy of its name."

Missionaries, this writer holds, should be very careful how they appeal to the strong arm of their government for protection. The principle which they should never let escape them is, "that they are, above all, ambassadors of Jesus Christ, the Prince of Peace." It is quite evident, he says, in conclusion, "that by far the greater part of the prejudices which sometimes obtain against foreign missions is due to ignorance of what they have really accomplished. They are certainly a mighty power for good, morally, intellectually, and materially. "We have the right to say that the most certain agent of civilization is the missionary."

ANTONIN DVORÁK, BOHEMIAN-AMERICAN COMPOSER.

WHILE a Czech of the Czechs, the late Antonin Dvorák was the composer of several musical works which are more generally known as American than any composition by native American musicians. For three years, also, he was director of the National Conservatory of America. In an appreciation of his work, the *Outlook* says, editorially :

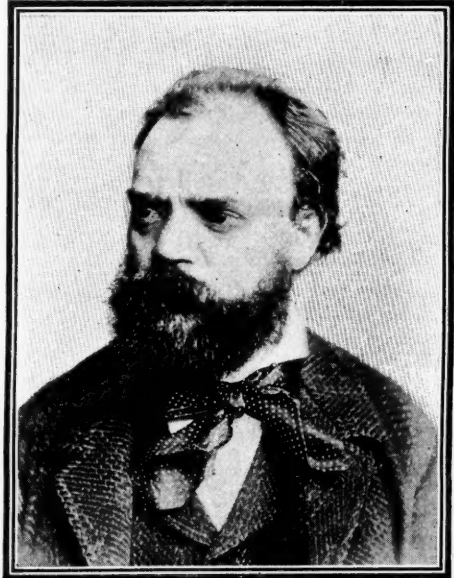
"It is true he did not contribute as much toward the development of music in America as many men more obscure have contributed ; but he sympathetically endeavored to find here musical elements characteristic of the country and to translate them into forms which would pass current in the world at large. These elements he discovered to his own satisfaction in the negro melodies of the South. It is upon motives from these melodies that he built up his symphony 'From the New World,' and his American quartet and quintet. He urged on American composers the use of this fund of music, forgetting that the American musician is European by descent and training, and quite as alien to the race which created these melodies as any European would be. Dvorák's interest in the negro folk-song was natural, for his own music is but the glorified folk-song of his native Bohemia."

HIS PEASANT ORIGIN.

Dvorák was a butcher's son, a peasant of the peasants. His musical instincts seemed to supply him, largely self-taught as he was, with that sense of musical form and that restraint which commonly result only from education. The *Independent* characterizes his symphony "From the New World" as "frankly external in its fresh naïveté," and as "moving buoyantly from mood to mood, expressing at least one phase of the American temperament, but not penetrating deep." The *Independent* compares him to Watteau, the great painter, who was also a Bohemian. It says :

"Like Antoine Watteau, Antonin Dvorák had his childish talent first stimulated by the wandering musicians and strolling players that he saw from the window of his home. Painter and composer, moreover, each retained to the last his predominating interest in *genre* subjects. Both came of peasant stock, and both narrowly escaped following the parental calling. Watteau's father was the seventeenth-century equivalent of a plumber, at Valenciennes, while Dvorák senior was village innkeeper and butcher at Mühldhausen."

But here the parallel ceases.



ANTONIN DVORÁK.

(The late Bohemian composer, who wrote on American themes.)

"The Bohemian-Frenchman, Watteau, kept his love for typical figures of his period, but his countless chalk drawings and paintings were mainly of folk in the great world ; of these he has come down as the chief interpreter. Dvorák remained a man of the people, in mind and heart, though he, too, ultimately found prosperity. His creative work as composer was deeply affected by this obstinate survival of what was, be it said, both his strength and his weakness,—his tenacious peasant nature. Watteau came to speak a universal tongue ; Dvorák's Czechish idiom is often provincial and occasionally barbarous. Even after his three fruitful years in New York (1892-95) as head of the National Conservatory, Dr. Dvorák harked back to his racy mannerisms, upon which, indeed, depend much of the delightful gayety and charm of his music. And never, perhaps, did his intellectual power, his grasp as a designer in the large, keep pace with his remarkable flow of cheery and not always significant melody."

Dvorák's American compositions and his work as a conductor in the United States are regarded by his critics (and he himself also believed it) as his best, most successful, musical efforts.

THE WORLD'S PIVOTAL REGION.

RUSSIA as the pivotal region of the world is the subject of an exhaustive study by H. J. Mackinder, in the *Geographical Journal*. In the first place, he asks us to look upon Europe and European history as subordinate to Asia and Asiatic history, for "European civilization is, in a very real sense, the outcome of the secular struggle against Asiatic invasion." He says:

"For a thousand years, a series of horse-riding peoples emerged from Asia through the broad interval between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, rode through the open spaces

continent. It was upon navigation of oceanic rivers that was based the Potamic stage of civilization, that of China on the Yang-tse, that of India on the Ganges, that of Babylonia on the Euphrates, that of Egypt on the Nile. It was essentially upon the navigation of the Mediterranean that was based what has been described as the Thalassic stage of civilization,—that of the Greeks and the Romans. The Saracens and the Vikings held sway by navigation of the oceanic coasts."

Without stopping to allow us to take breath after these vast geographical generalizations, Mr. Mackinder goes on to say:

"The all-important result of the discovery of the Cape road to the Indies was to connect the western and eastern coastal navigations of Euro-Asia, even though by a circuitous route, and thus in some measure to neutralize the strategical advantage of the central position of the steppe nomads by pressing upon them in rear. The revolution commenced by the great mariners of the Columbian generation endowed Christendom with the widest possible



of southern Russia, and struck home into Hungary, in the very heart of the European peninsula, shaping, by the necessity of opposing them, the history of each of the great peoples around,—the Russians, the Germans, the French, the Italians, and the Byzantine Greeks. That they stimulated healthy and powerful reaction, instead of crushing opposition under a widespread despotism, was due to the fact that the mobility of their power was conditioned by the steppes, and necessarily ceased in the surrounding forests and mountains."

A rival mobility of power, he goes on to show, was that of the Vikings, in their boats. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, all the settled margins of the old world, from Poland to China, felt the expansive force of mobile power originating in the steppe. Russia, Persia, India, and China were either made tributary to or received Mongol dynasties.

THE RIVAL MOBILITIES OF LAND AND SEA.

"Mobility upon the ocean is the natural rival of horse and camel mobility in the heart of the

sible mobility of power short of a winged mobility. The one and continuous ocean enveloping the divided and insular lands is, of course, the geographical condition of ultimate unity in the command of the sea."

As a result, new Europes were created. "Britain, Canada, the United States, South Africa, Australia, and Japan are now a ring of outer and insular bases for sea power and commerce, inaccessible to the land power of Euro-Asia."

ROMAN VERSUS BYZANTINE.

Then another suggestive generalization is launched.

"It is probably one of the most striking coincidences of history that the seaward and the landward expansion of Europe should, in a sense, continue the ancient opposition between Roman and Greek. Few great failures have had more far-reaching consequences than the failure of Rome to Latinize the Greek. The Teuton was civilized and Christianized by the Roman; the Slav, in the main, by the Greek. It was the Romano-Teuton who in later times embarked upon

the ocean ; it was the Græco-Slav who rode over the steppes, conquering the Turanian. Thus, the modern land power differs from the sea power no less in the source of its ideals than in the material conditions of its mobility."

But with the close of the Columbian epoch, as Mr. Mackinder describes the last four hundred years, the ascendancy of sea power is threatened by the development of greater mobility in land power.

"Transcontinental railways are now transmuting the conditions of land power, and nowhere can they have such effect as in the closed heart-land of Euro-Asia, in vast areas of which neither timber nor accessible stone was available for road-making. Railways work the greater wonders in the steppe, because they directly replace horse and camel mobility, the road stage of development having here been omitted."

CONSEQUENT GROUPING OF POWERS.

Russia replaced the Mongol empire, and the full development of her modern railway mobility is merely a matter of time.

"Outside the pivot area, in a great inner crescent, are Germany, Austria, Turkey, India, and China, and in an outer crescent, Britain, South Africa, Australia, the United States, Canada, and Japan. In the present condition of the balance of power, the pivot state, Russia, is not equivalent to the peripheral states, and there is room for an equipoise in France. The oversetting of the balance of power in favor of the pivot state, resulting in its expansion over the marginal lands of Euro-Asia, would permit of the use of vast continental resources for fleet-building, and the empire of the world would then be in sight. This might happen if Germany were to ally herself with Russia. The threat of such an event should, therefore, throw France into an alliance with the over-sea powers."

The potentialities of South America might have the casting vote. Mr. Mackinder's contention is that, from a geographical point of view, they are likely to rotate around the pivot state, which is always likely to be great, but with limited mobility as compared with the surrounding marginal and insular powers.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN RUSSIA.

AN exceedingly unattractive picture of industrial life in Russia is presented by John Callan O'Laughlin in the *World's Work* for June. Mr. O'Laughlin has studied Russian industrial conditions at first hand. He finds that Russian factory workmen form less than 2 per cent. of the population of the empire, which is naturally an agricultural country. "In no other country of Europe," he says, "are wages so low as in Russia. American workmen earn twice, and even three times, as much. The average monthly wages paid in the Departments of Moscow and Vladimir are as follows :

" Men.....	\$8 to \$8.50 a week
Women.....	\$6 a week
Youths between fifteen and seventeen.....	\$3.50 a week
Girls between fifteen and seventeen.....	\$3 a week
Children of both sexes.....	\$2.50 a week

"In the western section of the empire, wages are 50 per cent. higher than in the central section. As one goes farther eastward, wages progressively diminish, and in the extreme east they are at least 20 per cent. below those of the industrial region of the center. The number of days of work in the west is greater than in the center, and the number of days of work in the center is greater than in the east. In the Baltic provinces and at St. Petersburg and neighborhood, the working days number 290 annually ; in

the center, they number 280, and in the east, 270.

"The following average monthly wages are paid in the various important industries. To get the St. Petersburg scale, 30 per cent. should be added.

" Cotton industry—men, \$10 ; women, \$9.
Linen industry—men, \$9 ; women, \$6.
Silk industry—men, \$12 ; women, \$5.
Sugar-refining industry—men, \$7 ; women, \$6.50.
Glass industry—men, \$6.50 ; women, \$3.
Porcelain industry—men, \$9 ; women, \$6.
Steel industry—men, \$12."

There is a good deal of industrial unrest. But the imperial government takes a strong position in labor matters, absolutely prohibiting strikes and trade-unions, but also suppressing the company-store system. As to the possible effect of the present war on industrial conditions in Russia, Mr. O'Laughlin says :

"It is nonsense to suppose that the grievances of labor in Russia will provoke revolution any more than similar grievances in the United States will precipitate it. That a propaganda, directed principally from Germany, is in progress, is true. 'Workmen, pray for Japan,' read a printed bill that fell from nowhere in a St. Petersburg factory, 'for in Russia's defeat you will achieve your rights.' The workmen seem, however, to be too patriotic to take advantage

of the embarrassment of the government. The great majority earnestly and sincerely wish the triumph of the Czar. The authorities are aware that the discontent of the men is due principally to long hours, excessive fines (which are pocketed by employers), and low wages. The first two

grievances are based upon illegal acts, but the last is an economic condition which the minister of finance does not care to touch. Wherever the men are well treated, they have never given trouble. They are good workmen, with little initiative."

WOMAN IN INDUSTRY.

IT has become quite the fashion to assume that woman's economic independence, if not already achieved, is at least well assured. That this is a hasty assumption is maintained with much force of reasoning by Mrs. Flora McDonald Thompson in the *North American Review* for May.

While women wage-earners, including all above ten years of age, form 17.22 per cent. of the industrial population, Mrs. Thompson shows that this numerical strength is constantly depleted by marriage. "In consequence of this, the woman who is a unit of production has no effect other than to confuse economic problems. She eternally eludes classification with reference to the volume of her production and its cost by fitfully disappearing from the economic order as the attraction of sex makes demands upon her. Her aim in industry is not a livelihood, the laborer's aim and the basis of calculation from which economic equations are formed. She works as a makeshift pending marriage, and thus she tends always to sink to a level with the lowest order of labor, unskilled—the worth of which is reckoned, not according to its power, but according to the shifting stress of the necessities of the laborer."

INCREASING THE COST OF LIVING.

Considering also the fact that as women engage in men's work they withdraw an indispensable force from household production, it is obvious that one effect of woman's so-called industrial independence is to increase the cost of living, while at the same time debasing the value of labor.

"The wages of women being fixed without reference to the cost of living, they tend, in competing with men, to reduce wages below what it costs to live. Thus, as they abandon the economy of the household for wage-earning, they put labor in the anomalous position of having living expenses increase in inverse ratio to wages. This is a perversion of the economic law of wages, which have always a tendency to increase as the cost of living increases. Women, however, disturb this relation by engaging in wage-earning, and in this instance they have the par-

ticular effect of depleting subsistence. Plainly, if wages are less than the cost of living, labor is poorly sustained,—insufficiently nourished. Thus, both directly and indirectly, woman in industry, considered with strict reference to economy, operates both to increase the cost of production and to diminish the efficiency of labor."

In reply to the contention that displacements of men in industry due to the advance of women are similar to the effects wrought by the introduction of labor-saving machinery, Mrs. Thompson points out that women's wage-earning offers no compensation for the hardship it entails upon men in the benefits of facilitated production such as follow upon the use of machinery. The sole economic effect of woman's labor, she holds, is to increase cost and diminish efficiency in production. At the same time, there is no diminution of men's responsibility.

"The man remains liable for the support of the family, even though his wife and daughter, competing with him in business, should lower his wages to the starvation point. Woman labor is an economic element as abnormal as convict labor, and it is equally pernicious, for the reason that legitimate labor is taxed for its support."

WOMAN ILL ADAPTED TO MAN'S WORK.

To the question What has the industrial revolution accomplished for woman? Mrs. Thompson makes answer:

"It has secured her a competence averaging less than one dollar a day. It has undermined her health. It has trained her in the work of a machine, and made her unskilled in all the labor which supplements the office of wife and mother in the family. It has taken her out of the home.

"The mere fact of the average woman's success in industry, as betokened in the wages she receives—less than one dollar a day—in itself is emphatic declaration of the futility of women's undertaking of men's work. The depravity of it appears in its effect upon the woman's physical organism. An exhaustive and scholarly investigation of the relation of men's work to the

health of women wage-earners was made by the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics. In this report, the conclusion is reached that immature girls should be prohibited by law from working in factories, stores, business institutions of all descriptions, and that the law should have jurisdiction over the labor of all women, to determine, as does the Council of Salubrity in France, what branches of industry a woman may engage in without detriment to her health. In other words, so ill adapted to men's work is her physical constitution proved to be by experience and scientific investigation that a woman's choice of occupation should be legally re-

stricted. The economic reason alleged for this is that the reproductive organs in particular are injured by the strain of men's work, and the human race deteriorates in consequence of woman's impaired physical ability to perform the maternal function. Now, in the design of nature, which neither university courses nor political emancipation can overthrow, the destiny of woman is wifehood, maternity. Abstract these offices from any calculation concerning the sex, and we have the end of the world. It is axiomatic that the first thing indispensable to even the progress of woman is the continuance of the human species."

GERMANY'S FAILURE.

IF "Calchas" is right in the article which he contributes to the *Fortnightly Review*, it is not Russia which is now the last in influence of the great Continental powers, but Germany. "The Bankruptcy of Bismarckian Policy" is the title of his article. The severe truth, begins "Calchas," is that "Germany is at the present moment the most isolated power, that Berlin has been deposed from its predominance in Europe, and that the whole Bismarckian system of policy has come to total bankruptcy in the hands of the Iron Chancellor's successors." Formerly, the magnetic pole of diplomacy oscillated between Berlin and St. Petersburg; at present, it oscillates between Paris and London. This is largely the result of the Anglo-French understanding, which "Calchas" approves highly of as making for international stability. But it does this at the expense of the Kaiser. He says:

"We see the master-feature of the agreement in its effect upon the position and prospects of the powers. It completely destroys the diplomatic prospects of Germany. To say that it was not directed against her is a verbal formula. The fact is only partly true. So far as it is true, it is not important. If not directed against Germany, the Anglo-French settlement works most powerfully against Germany. It leaves her statesmen nonplused; it deprives her diplomacy of the fulcrum by which it had exerted its strongest leverage upon the international situation. The Franco-Russian alliance was already the principal obstacle to all the ambitions of Pan-Germanism on land. The Anglo-French agreement places a more formidable obstacle across the path of the Kaiser's ambitions by sea."

The bankruptcy of the Bismarckian policy

has been due, primarily, to Germany's overtrading upon it, and partly to the revolt of England against it. Both the Kaiser and Count von Bülow, says "Calchas," blundered badly. Both, by overconfidence, did all they could to destroy Germany's brilliant prospects.

"The posture of the world has rarely seemed more favorable to the purposes of any great power than it was to those of Germany, nor less auspicious for the future of any country than it seemed for us [the English] with the opening months of the Boer war. The climax of opportunity is always the point of peril. The Kaiser, with prodigal rashness, with a brilliancy of daring that took away the world's breath, exposed the aims of German policy in every direction. Count von Bülow gloried with equal zest in revealing the pulse of the machine. The Bagdad Railway concession startled Russia for the first time into recognition of the fact that the formula upon which Bismarckian diplomacy was founded in the beginning, and with which St. Petersburg had been successfully amused at repeated intervals long after it had ceased to be true, had in reality become a thing of the past. With the concession for a German railway to the Persian Gulf, it was impossible to pretend any more that Germany had no political interests in the Eastern question. Russia has since listened to the formula on several occasions with well-simulated solemnity, but she has never since believed it."

The only solid and progressive achievement during the present Kaiser's reign has been Germany's naval policy. That policy has already made Germany the third naval power in the world. But, as "Calchas" insists, it has been purchased by the Fatherland's isolation in Europe.

ELECTRICAL ACTION IN PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

SOME of the results of the latest investigations of electrical phenomena in plants and animals are given in an article by Dr. W. Biedermann, in the *Ergebnisse der Physiologie* (Wiesbaden).

Nowhere else in organic nature is there an example of the direct generation of mechanical and electrical energy, on a large scale, of corresponding adaptation of structure and change of function, similar to that found in the so-called electric fishes, which have the power of discharging electricity at will, as a means of defense.

A number of fishes have this power to a certain degree, but the electric organ is most perfectly developed in the South American eel (*Gymnotus*), in which there is a pair of electric organs lying on the ventral side of the tail; in the electric sheath-fish (*Malapterurus*), in which the electric battery ensheaths the body; and in the fish known as the "torpedo," which has electric organs on each side of the head.

STRUCTURE OF THE "ELECTRIC" ORGANS.

The organs consist of columns of living tissue that originate as muscle but lose all resemblance to it in the course of development and take the form of thin plates, a fraction of a millimeter thick, placed one above another. The organ has a very large nerve that sends a branch to each plate, and this branch subdivides, inside the electric plate, into fine threads forming a delicate network connected with innumerable microscopic electric rods. The active electro-motor principle is supposed to lie in this delicate terminal network, with its electric rods, and the degree of electric power is directly correlated with the degree of development of this structure. It is a noteworthy fact that the blood-supply of the electric organ is very meager as compared with the blood-supply of the muscles. In the ray fishes, the blood vessels never penetrate the plates that compose the organ, but lie between them.

Observations of the action of the electric current were made by means of a telephone placed in connection with the fish and provided with a device attached to the vibrating disk, by means of which any electrical stimulus conveyed to it would be registered by a line drawn on paper. It was found that often there is an electric discharge from the fish while swimming, without any defensive purpose. On account of the manner of swimming, the positive pole of the apparatus was sometimes stimulated, and sometimes the negative pole, and it was found that the

quality of the sounds produced through the telephone varied according to the pole stimulated, and may be either weak and dull or sharp and crackling. The electric organs on both sides of the body always discharge simultaneously, like one organ. There is no voluntary variation in the strength of the discharge, but the shock may be made more intense by the cumulative effect of more rapid discharge of the electric organ. A single stimulation of the organ in the electric sheath-fish will produce a whole series of discharges a fraction of a second apart.

The writer distinguishes *weak* and *strong* electric fishes. In the former, the organ lies deeper in the tissues of the body, and lacks the finer development of nervous structure found in the latter.

"ELECTRICAL" PLANTS.

There are certain noteworthy observations on manifestations of electricity in plants which promise to be of great interest from the theoretical point of view. There are probably always electro-motor activities in the different parts of plants, which, it is reasonable to assume, are due to chemical differences in the different layers of cells, and they have been observed, not only as responses to mechanical stimulation, but as accompanying manifestations in the assimilation of carbon dioxide in the regular process of plant nutrition.

Certain plants, among them iris, nicotine, begonia, and nasturtium, are more favorable than others for these experiments. If one of them be placed in connection with a galvanometer by means of electrodes attached to leaves on different sides, and one side of the plant be exposed to sunlight while the other side is kept shaded, then within from three to ten seconds after exposure to sunlight there will be a flow of electricity from the lighted to the shaded parts amounting to .005 to .02 volt. This continues for about five minutes, when the magnet begins to swing back and shows an opposite current of considerable magnitude. The manifestations are similar to those of tetanized nerve.

The electric current of green leaves is least in diffuse daylight, greater in refracted light, and most in direct sunlight, and it is further affected by the temperature, 20° C. being the optimum for iris. Cooking the leaves destroys their electric activity, and the electric manifestations are not found in plants that do not have green leaves. This was considered as proof that the generation of electricity accompanies the assimilation of carbon dioxide.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Industrial Topics.—The prevailing American interest in all that makes for material progress is well illustrated in the June numbers of the popular magazines. Even the exclusive pages of the *Atlantic Monthly* have been invaded by this restless spirit of industrialism. In that dignified periodical there is a well-informed article on "Trolley Competition with the Railroads," by Ray Morris. This writer believes that while the interurban trolley roads are certain to undergo a period of foreclosure and reorganization during the next ten years, they will become, after readjustments and the development of electric transportation, the natural and profitable short-haul passenger-carriers of the country. This month's financial article in the *World's Work* is entitled "How the Unmerged Pacific Roads Stand." The writer asserts that real consolidation of the Hill and Harriman interests in the Northwest is an impossibility. "They will divide their world between them. They cannot share it. Each is too strong, too autocratic, too impatient of advice and restraint." Mr. Lewis Nixon contributes to the *World's Work* an interesting forecast of the superseding of steam by the gas engine, especially for use in factories and ships. By the use of these engines, a ten-thousand-ton cruiser would to-day proceed around the world at fourteen knots an hour, without taking on fuel, and without sacrificing any of her war efficiency. All this has come about since the *Oregon* made her famous run from San Francisco to Cuba, stopping to coal at Valparaiso. In the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. William P. Stewart describes the glass-making industry of this country. Thomas P. Steinmetz, one of the greatest electrical inventors of the world, who has advanced from a poor German student to become an American industrial leader, is sketched for the readers of the *World's Work* by Arthur Goodrich. "Wasted Machinery on the Panama Canal" is the subject of an article in the May number of *Cassier's Magazine* in which are presented many interesting facts regarding the abandoned improvements of the old French company.

Problems in Sociology.—Mr. John H. Denison contributes to the *Atlantic* for June a thoughtful paper entitled "The Great Delusion of Our Time," in which he discusses the doctrine of natural selection in its relations to social progress, maintaining that we have been carried away by this theory, which "undertakes to solve the social question by disintegrating society," and as proof of his thesis he points to the present aspect of the labor question, the political situation in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and other great cities, the enormous development of "graft," the thievish character of our new methods of finance, the Standard Oil operations, the Turkish situation, and the impotency of our modern civilization to put a stop to lynching or to prevent war between Japan and Russia. Mr. William Thorp, in the *World's Work*, shows the methods adopted in Jamaica for the solution of the

negro problem. Mr. F. Cunliffe-Owen discusses, in *Munsey's*, what he calls "The Real Yellow Peril," by which he means the danger of an Oriental uprising against Western opinions, and of the wholesale expulsion of the white man from Asia. Prof. John R. Commons brings to a close, in the May number of the *Chautauquan*, a series of articles on the racial composition of the American people, dealing, in the closing article, with problems of amalgamation and assimilation. Various topics in the field of philanthropy and penology are treated in the current issue of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia). Mr. G. A. Kleene writes on "The Problem of Medical Charity," Mr. Franklin B. Kirkbride on "Some Phases of the Dispensary Problem," Mr. Benjamin C. Marsh on "Causes of Vagrancy and Methods of Eradication," Mr. William H. Allen on "Fresh Air Work," Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay on "The Public Charities of Porto Rico," and Mr. Robert W. Hebbard on "Supervision of Public Charities in New York." In the same number, there are papers on "Correctional Work in Michigan," by Lucius C. Storrs; "The Education of Juvenile Delinquents," by F. H. Nibeker, and "Recent Tendencies in American Criminal Legislation," by Samuel J. Barrows. Prof. W. M. Daniels, of Princeton, writes, in the June *Atlantic*, on "The Ethics of Taxation."

Capital and Labor.—The most authoritative account that has been written of the recent disturbances involving the New York building trades is contributed to the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University) by Prof. John R. Commons. This paper gives a detailed account of the long series of negotiations between the employers and the unions which terminated in the new form of joint government early in the present year. Mr. Peter Roberts writes in the *Annals* of the American Academy on "The Employment of Girls in Textile Industries of Pennsylvania," and Mr. Guy Warfield gives, in *Munsey's* for June, a sketch of "The Great Labor Unions and Their Leaders." In the current number of the *Catholic Quarterly Review* (Philadelphia), the Rev. John A. Ryan discusses at length "The Morality of the Aims and Methods of the Labor Union," concluding that the aims of the union are substantially right, and that its methods, with the exception of occasional violence, tyranny, and a tendency to make excessive demands, are justifiable, both legally and morally.

Municipal Government.—In the *Commons*, of Chicago, for May appears a portion of the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte's address on "Partisanship in Municipal Politics" before the National Municipal League, in April last. In this address, Mr. Bonaparte takes the ground that the immediate end of municipal reformers in this country is to compel the party organizations now existing to be the agencies of good city govern-

ment. In other words, Mr. Bonaparte would invite bids from both parties for the support of good government—bids in the nomination of good men and for the support of good measures,—and he would close with the highest bidder. Admitting that partisanship in municipal affairs is the source of much evil, Mr. Bonaparte holds that its elimination is neither practicable nor certainly and unreservedly to be desired. His aim, therefore, is to make it, as far as possible, a source of good. In the *Ethical Record* (New York City), which is edited by Mr. Percival Chubb, there is a paper by Mr. John Martin on "Our Municipal Corruption: The Real Culprits." The article is significant of the change of view regarding our municipal ills, due in no small part to the publication of Mr. Steffens' articles on corrupt American city governments, in that it calls for the transformation of our commercial as well as our political system. A few years ago, the cry was for business methods and business men in city government. Now it is recognized that the evil has its roots far deeper. While Mr. Martin believes that municipal ownership would be a help to reform, he recognizes the fact that in the long run the people can be won to the love of honesty only by an increase of intelligence and the stirring of moral sentiment.

Education in the United States.—"Common-Sense Country Schools" is the subject of a paper in the *World's Work* for June by Adèle Marie Shaw. In this article, Miss Shaw describes the work of Superintendent Kern, of Winnebago County, Illinois, who some months ago contributed an interesting account of country-school rejuvenation to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Superintendent Kern's methods have been fruitful, not only in supplying Winnebago County with well-planned buildings and attractive school grounds, but in teaching the children attending the rural schools the things most useful for them to know as the farmers and farmers' wives of the future. In the *Educational Review* for May appear four of the papers prepared for the recent meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association. In the same number, "The American College Course" is discussed by Mr. Howard A. Coffin, while Mr. E. O. Vaile reviews the arguments for the reform of spelling, with special reference to the proposed action of the National Educational Association.

Religious Education.—The new movement for religious education is treated at some length in several of the theological journals. In the *American Journal of Theology* (University of Chicago), Dr. George A. Coe, of Northwestern University, analyzes the philosophy of the movement. The principles of religious education are also set forth in a paper by Prof. George E. Dawson, of Harvard, in the May number of the *Biblical World* (University of Chicago). In the *Homiletic Review* for May, President William H. P. Faunce, of Brown University, writes on "The Coördination of the Bible with Other Subjects of Study," advocating the compilation of a book of selections from the Bible suited for use in schools. He believes that it will be easy for Protestants, Catholics, Jews, and agnostics to agree on certain historical and ethical selections from the Bible, which will find their way into general use in the public schools. In this connection, it is interesting to note the observations of an English writer in the *Contemporary Review* for May, who is convinced that "the average boy at school is as little influenced by the religion whose

forms he is encouraged to observe as if God lived on Sundays only, within the chapel only, in theory only." He pleads for a modification of the religious teaching so as to render it less mechanical, more effective.

Natural Science.—Among attractive "nature articles" in the June numbers, we note especially Mr. Theodore C. Smith's "Song Forms of the Thrush," in the *Atlantic*; Dr. H. C. McCook's "The Strange Cycle of the Cicada," in *Harper's*, and Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton's "Master Plowman of the West" (the pocket gopher), in the *Century*. *Outing* has an attractive article on "The Sea Bass of England," by F. G. Afalo. The same number has an article by Mr. William C. Harris on "The Black Bass and Its Habits," and John Burroughs writes on "The Training of Wild Animals."

Art Topics.—American art is distinctively represented among the June articles by Mr. Frank Sewall's "A Sculptor of the Prairie" (Solon H. Borglum), in the *Century*. The title of this article was not carelessly chosen, since the sculptor was born in Utah, has been a resident of Nebraska, and has studied Indian life in South Dakota. Mr. Borglum's work at the St. Louis World's Fair, reproductions of which accompany the *Century* article, well illustrates the spirit of Western life, in which all his productions have their motive. "The Art Palace at St. Louis" is described in *Munsey's* by Mr. W. S. Bridgman. Edwina Spencer writes, in the *Chautauquan* for May, on the sculpture of the exposition. In *Harper's*, "The City of Beautiful Towers" (the hill town of San Gimignano, of Tuscan Italy) is the subject of an interesting paper by Louise C. Hale. Alder Anderson, writing in the *Cosmopolitan*, describes the paintings in the Paris Panthéon. The "Ideal Village" is described in the *World's Work* by Joy Wheeler Dow. Photographs of typical New England villages are used to illustrate Mr. Dow's article. In the *Craftsman* for May, the subject of "Parks" is treated by H. K. Bush-Brown, and "The Town Beautiful" by Susan F. Stone. In the *House Beautiful* (Chicago), Prof. Oscar L. Triggs writes on "The Meaning of Industrial Art," attempting an analysis of the new movement. In the May number of the *Bookman* appears the second installment of Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer's critique of "Recent Landscapes and American Painters." Among the paintings discussed by Mrs. Meyer are J. Alden Weir's "Windham, Connecticut;" Ochtman's "Autumn Sunrise;" "On the James River," F. W. Kost; Tryon's "Pasture Lands;" Murphy's "Indian Summer;" and Walker's "Sheep at Pasture." Mr. Percy Bate writes, in the *Magazine of Art* for May, an appreciation of some recent Glasgow paintings. Reproductions of paintings by Henderson, Allan, Fulton, Stevenson, Walton, Cameron, Lavery, and Roche accompany the text. The same periodical has an essay on "Émile Gallé: A Master in Glass," by Prince Karageorgevitch. In the *International Studio* for May there is an illustrated paper on "Japanese Flower Painting," by the editor, and also a paper on "Modern Russian Art," treating of some of the leading painters of Moscow.

Literary Themes in the Magazines.—The second installment of the Ruskin letters to Charles Eliot Norton, in the *Atlantic* for June, covers the years 1857-59, and affords a new revelation, not only of Ruskin's personal life in those years, but also of the remarkable in-

timacy that existed for so long a period between him and his American correspondent. Allusions in these letters to such matters as John Brown's raid, and other events of current history, show that Ruskin depended, in no small degree, on Professor Norton for his information on American affairs. In the *Lamp* for May there is a pertinent inquiry by Mr. J. M. Bulloch, "Has England Ceased to Sing?" This writer refers to the pessimistic views of Alfred Austin, but finds much ground for encouragement in the fact that the most popular London morning newspaper published Maeterlinck's essays, showing that interest in the higher kinds of poetry is far from defunct. "Modern Japanese Women Writers,"—a new subject in American magazines,—is treated in the May *Critic* by Yone Noguchi. This article concludes with the comment that, while there are one hundred poetesses in Japan, no one of them has achieved any distinction. There are many translators, and some essayists and novelists, among the Japanese women of to-day. "The Last Days of the Stoddards" is an interesting personal sketch by Earle Hooker Eaton in the *Reader Magazine* for May.

Journalism and Journalists.—Mr. H. W. Boynton discusses "The Literary Aspect of Journalism" in the June *Atlantic*. Whatever may be thought of the ephemeral character of the journalist's work, Mr. Boynton at least shows that in this country the responsibility devolved on the journalist to afford a vast population its only opportunity of contact with literature is not to be despised. Mr. Boynton emphasizes the influence of daily journalism on American magazines, holding that the latter are to be distinguished from the better daily journals only by exclusion of detail and modification of method. In the May number of the *Bookman* there is a suggestive paper on "The European Correspondent," by Edward A. Dithmar. This writer says that there is a field for "the intelligent, clear-minded American" in Europe, who should be equipped to hunt out, for us, the facts that we need to know. We are unwittingly influenced by the reactionary influences surrounding the sources of much of our European news. Then, too, as Mr. Dithmar points out, the whole governmental system of Europe is frequently opposed to the dissemination of the news.

Western History.—In this month's *Atlantic*, Prof. F. J. Turner concludes his series of "The Diplomatic Contest for the Mississippi." The most notable feature of *Scribner's* for June is the publication of a series of letters written by Lewis and Clark, the explorers, just one hundred years ago, the originals of which have only recently been discovered. These include a letter from Lewis offering Clark a partnership in the trans-continental expedition, Clark's letter of acceptance, addressed both to President Jefferson and to Lewis, and a letter from Lewis to Clark expressing his gratification at the latter's acceptance, together with extracts from

the note-books of Clark, long missing, and original drawings made by the explorer. Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites accompanies these historical finds with an explanatory article.

Our Middle West.—The West has a prominent place in some of the illustrated magazines for June. Various characteristics of the group of States commonly designated as the middle West are described and analyzed by Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson, under the title "In Medias Res," in *Harper's*. The semi-centennial anniversary of the Kansas-Nebraska bill is the occasion of a survey of "Fifty Years of Kansas," by Mr. William Allen White, in the *World's Work*. "Indianapolis, the City of Homes," is a very clever description of the live middle-Western town, by Meredith Nicholson, in the June *Atlantic*.

Mormonism.—Most important among the group of articles which afford ground for designating the June *Century* as a "Western number" is Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's paper on "The Vitality of Mormonism,"—a remarkable study of American civilization under the peculiar conditions of an irrigated country. Apropos of the Smoot investigation at Washington, there is an article on "Mormon Church Influence in Politics" in the *World's Work*.

Various Subjects in the Theological Reviews.—In the *American Journal of Theology* (Chicago), the Rev. Henry A. Redpath writes on "A New Theory as to the Use of the Divine Names in the Pentateuch;" Prof. A. H. Sayce, of Oxford, on "The Legal Code of Babylonia;" Samuel H. Bishop on "A Point of View for the Study of Religion," and the Rev. William Dewar on "What Is a Miracle?" In the *Homiletic Review* for May, Prof. Francis G. Peabody discusses the "Social Teaching of Jesus Christ;" Mr. Eugene Parsons the "Decline of the Religious Spirit in the Younger British Poets;" Prof. George William Knox "The Place of Authority in Religion;" Dr. Joseph Dunn Burrill "Recent Archaeological Finds and Their Biblical Significance." In the *Bibliotheca Sacra* (Oberlin, Ohio), Dr. John Bascom writes on "Addenda of Psychology;" Dr. Charles H. Oliphant on "Authority and the Pulpit;" Dr. Henry M. Whitney on "The Latest Translation of the Bible;" Prof. F. H. Foster on "Park's Theological System;" and Dr. Edward Merrins on "Biblical Epidemics of Bubonic Plague." The current number of the *Princeton Theological Review* contains the following articles: "Thomas Aquinas and Leo XIII.," by Dr. David S. Schaff; "The Apostle Paul and the Second Advent," by Dr. Timothy D. Darling; "Thomas Cromwell," by Dr. Paul van Dyke; "Intuitive Perception," by Dr. Henry C. Minton; "The Story of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church," by Dr. Edward B. Hodge; and "The Proposed Union with the Cumberland Presbyterians," by Dr. Benjamin B. Warfield.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

An Anecdote of Skobelieff.—In his editorial chronicle on the war, the editor of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* has some severe things to say about the false reports which are circulated from St. Petersburg. The Russian people, he says, are kept in absolute ignorance of the fact that their navy is being defeated by the

Japanese. He cannot condemn this too severely, and in the course of his remarks he recalls the fact (he insists that it is a fact) of the peasant belief that General Skobelieff, the hero of the Turkish and the Turkestan wars, who died some twenty years ago, is still living in prison. This legend, he declares, "is quite character-

istic of the Russian people's notions of geography and the relation of Russia to other powers." He gives the legend as follows:

Mikhail Dmitrich Skobelieff once sought the Little Father, the Czar, and said, "Permit me, I pray you, oh, Sire, to go to war against the Germans." But the Little Father replied, "No, General, I will not permit you to fight against the Germans, for they are our good



GENERAL SKOBELIEFF.

neighbors." Mikhail Dmitrich was not discouraged. He remained quiet for several years. Then he again sought the Little Father. "Permit me, oh, Sire, to go to war against the English." But the Czar refused for the second time, and said, "I cannot permit you to make war upon the English, for you must know that they are our richest and most industrious merchants." Skobelieff returned to his home discontented; but soon came, for the third time, to the Czar and said, "I have come to ask, oh, Little Father, permission to go against the Turks." Then the Czar was angry; he grew red, and ordered Skobelieff imprisoned in the Tower of Soukharevo, in Moscow. "There," he said—"there you will remain until you have learned to speak Japanese. I am not sure about the others, but the day will come when I will command you to make war on Japan." The peasants believe that General Skobelieff is still in the prison, that the Czar will soon give him his liberty, and that he will not let one single Japanese remain alive after the war.

Hard Life of a Siberian Miner.—It is a dreary picture of the miner's life in Siberia presented by A. Kolytscheff in the *Russkaye Bogtstvo* (St. Petersburg). In speaking of the education of these miners, this writer refers to the mines in the vicinity of Tomsk,

where more than twenty thousand workmen are employed, most of whom have their families with them. They work from six to seven months a year (the other five months the winter is too severe to permit work), at from twelve to fifteen hours a day, and lodge in the most miserable of barracks, on planks or in little cabins, damp, cold, and dirty. They are forced to buy the necessities of life from company stores, at an exorbitant price; and if they are sick, they are attended by some few ignorant infirmity employees, with no books or libraries, and no schools for the children. The young generation grows up in ignorance, and the fathers try to forget their miseries in drink.

The First Europeans in Japan.—Señhor Antonio de Campos Junior, a Portuguese writer, contributes to *La Revue* an historical sketch of "The First Europeans in Japan"—the Portuguese. He points out how, in 1541, the Mikado's empire (the Jih-pun, as the Portuguese learned from the Chinese) was visited by three Portuguese merchants, who sailed from one of the small towns of Cochin China, along the Chinese coast, and were wrecked during a storm on the shores of Kagoshima, the capital of the Daimo of Satsuma, in southern Japan. Eight years afterward, the Spanish Jesuit, Francis Xavier, under the protection of the Portuguese, landed at Kagoshima and began the work of Christianization in Japan. This writer traces the history of the relations between Europe and Japan up to 1609, when the Portuguese were expelled through the intrigues, he declares, of the Dutch merchants.

Hand Labor in China.—In the great centers of population in China, according to the *Mercure* (Paris), the working day is from ten to twelve hours. Wages are very low. Stone-breakers earn seven and one-half cents a day; rope-makers, thirteen cents, with board and lodging; brass-workers, forty-four cents; shoe-makers, fourteen cents, with board and lodging; printers, twenty-two cents, with eating only; mechanics, two dollars and twenty cents a week. In the cotton factories, even the larger ones, it is rare that one can find workmen whose wages exceed ten cents for men and five cents for children. The workers in the transportation service in the cities are even more poorly paid. The vehicles are even carried on the shoulders of the men or drawn by them. In Hongkong, the earnings of a coolie engaged in street transportation amounts to seventeen cents per day.

A French Opinion of England in Tibet.—While Europe and America are silently watching the great duel in the far East, there is one power, says a writer who signs himself "Tcheng," in the *Monde Illustré* (Paris), which steadily pursues its century-long policy, and we are "not sure that we can admire—or suspect—sufficiently the profundity of English diplomacy which has so well foreseen the present war and is using it for British advantage in Tibet." All the reasons alleged by the Indian viceroy are regarded by this writer as mere pretexts. It means colonial expansion pure and simple to him, and he prophesies that the echoes of Colonel Young-husband's rifles will be heard for a long time in Lassa, in Peking, and in St. Petersburg.

England and Russia in Persia.—A thought-provoking study of Anglo-Russian relations in the "middle East," or Central Asia, appears in *Onze Eeuw*. Persia

is the chief scene of operations at the moment, and the writer ("Peregrinator") has a good deal of interesting material for his readers to mark and digest. Russian manufacturers find it more profitable to get beyond their own borders, so they are pushing on toward Persia, and Russia is thereby gaining a stronger and stronger hold on that country. Furthermore, Persia borrows from Russia, and her indebtedness at the present time is 34,000,000 rubles. In order to arrest Russian incursions in Asia, Great Britain might try to make Persia another buffer state, but this would cost quite £200,000 a year, against the annuity of £150,000 now paid to the Ameer of Afghanistan. "Peregrinator" speaks of a Russian treaty with Tibet, concluded some months ago, but the article was probably written prior to the advance of the British expedition, which he would doubtless regard as another move in the game of Britain *versus* Russia in the middle East.

Pius X. and Church Music.—An appreciation of the new Pope's attitude toward church music, by a writer who signs himself "Valetta," appears in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). Pope Pius X., says this writer, has given the *coup de grâce* to the "decadent" religious music of the day.

"The theater has at last been separated from the sanctuary; no reminiscence of theatrical *motif* is to haunt the services of the temple, although the *concerto* proper is not banned." The writer reminds us that the struggle between florid ecclesiastical music and the *canto fermo*, Gregorian and Palestrinian music, has been going on for a long time in France and Germany, as well as in Italy. "As late as 1884, the Congregation of Rites published a 'regulation concerning music' which was approved of by Pope Leo XIII. This pronouncement seemed calculated to remedy the evil; but, practically, its provisions came to naught, and no reformation or return to primitive usages resulted. The issue was smoothed over by a hollow compromise, the *status quo* continued, and but little change was made. In 1894, new regulations were issued, but these were little more than amendments to the original regulations of 1884, and were calculated rather to favor those whose interest it was to have no changes made." Pius X. has always, however, favored musical dignity and simplicity. When he was Patriarch of Venice, the music in the basilica of St. Mark reached a lofty level of artistic dignity under Lorenzo Perosi, who is at present chapel master of the Sistine. No one knows better than Pius X. how important a matter is the music of the Church, and, while apparently indisposed to exercise coercion in the carrying out of his wishes, it is not likely that his recent instruction will prove a dead letter."

Women in Contemporary Industry.—Under this title, Professor Brunhes, of Fribourg, and his wife have an article (the first of a series) in the *Rivista Internazionale* (Rome), which shows the result of a vast amount of research. The aim of the articles is first to prove from statistics the ever-increasing number of women workers in factories and workshops, and secondly, to discuss "what solutions are possible to-day in order to lead woman back toward the moral and social ideal of Christianity, and to allow her to fulfill her essential and providential social mission of motherhood, of a mother who moves and educates her children, while governing, maintaining, and, we even say, creating, the true domestic hearth."

An International Rousseau Society.—There has just been formed, in Geneva, a committee which will arrange for the creation of a Jean Jacques Rousseau Society, on the same general lines as the Shakespeare Society, in England, the Goethe Society, in Germany, and the Society for the Study of Rabelais, in Paris. The promoters of this association, according to the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, desire to make it international in its scope, as Rousseau belongs to universal literature. Our aim, these gentlemen announce, is to preserve the history and criticism of the works and life of Rousseau. They ask the municipality of Geneva to take the initiative by establishing a Rousseau library, to which shall finally be added a bibliography of the famous Jean Jacques.

Patriotic Queen Isabella.—The late Queen Isabella II. of Spain was kept from the throne of her fathers, according to the *Ilustracion Espanola y Amer-*



THE LAST PICTURE OF THE LATE QUEEN ISABELLA OF SPAIN.

icano (Madrid), by "the passion of politics, the ingratitude of men, and the mistakes of history." Her life was one of change and sadness. She was patriotic, magnanimous, and profoundly religious. In personal appearance, she looked like a great "royal mother or

some splendid singer; and her manner was graciousness itself."

Foreign Students in France.—During the year 1903, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, there was a considerable increase in the number of foreign students in French universities, considering all the faculties—sciences, medicine, and *belles-lettres*. It is interesting to note that the larger increase was in the number of women students. In all, the foreign students in the universities in the republic formed more than a quarter of the entire attendance. Considered by nationalities, the largest representation was from Russia, the next largest from Turkey, then from Roumania, and then from Bulgaria. There were five American students in the School of Medicine at Paris, and six in the School of Science.

Railroads in Europe in 1903.—About five thousand miles of railroad were built in Europe in 1903. Germany constructed more mileage than any other European country. Next came Russia, then France, then Austria, then Great Britain and Ireland. It is significant to note, says the *Revue Statistique*, that, with the exceptions of Turkey, Bulgaria, and Roumania, Great Britain constructed less mileage than any other European country. This journal adds, as an interesting bit of information, that the highest railroad in Europe is that of Goernergrat, in Switzerland, which attains an altitude of three thousand and nineteen meters, just seventeen hundred and sixty-one meters lower, it admits, than the highest railroad in the world, —the Oroya line, in Peru.

The German Navy.—The chief feature of the *National Review* (London) for May is Mr. H. W. Wilson's elaborate and alarmist article on "The Menace of the German Navy," the menace, according to Mr. Wilson, lying in the fact that Germany might snatch a success over England's dispersed fleet and follow it up with a military attack. The German fleet already has an advantage over the British, owing to its policy of concentration. Mr. Wilson says that British naval organization is markedly behind that of Germany. One lesson of the Russo-Japanese War is that the party that takes the initiative and attacks resolutely has an immense advantage, and another is that concentration of armaments is essential.

Germany's Chemical Industry.—Mr. O. Eltzbacher describes, in the *Contemporary Review* (London), what he calls the most vigorous and successful of German industries—the chemical industry—which, unlike all other German industries, has almost done with-

out the fostering of a protective tariff. Germany has a monopoly in the manufacture of certain chemical preparations. About four-fifths of the dyes consumed in the world are made in Germany. The exports of chemical products amount to well over one hundred million dollars a year, and the industry takes fifth place among Germany's great exporting industries. About one hundred and seventy thousand men and women are employed in it, and so high are the wages paid that strikes in the trade are very rare. The importance of the industry to Germany lies not so much in its large exports as in the immense resources it has created,—for instance, the sugar-beet and the indigo industries.

Probable Cost of the War.—A French military writer, who signs himself "Commandant X," contributes to *La Revue* a study of the losses in men and money in the great wars of history, in order to come to some estimate of the probable destruction of life and property in the present war. The Crimean War, he says, cost Russia \$700,000,000, or \$25,000,000 per month; it cost the French about an equal sum, and the English somewhat less; the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 cost the Prussians \$256,000,000, or \$49,000,000 per month; the loss of the French (in addition to the territory) was \$2,800,000,000 or \$31,000,000 per month. England spent in the Boer War \$1,212,000,000, or \$38,000,000 per month; in the war with China, Japan spent \$84,000,000, or \$10,000,000 per month; and the Chinese, in addition to the cost of conducting the war, paid an indemnity of \$146,000,000. He does not attempt any definite estimate of the cost of the present war, but, assuming that four hundred thousand men will be engaged on each side, he prophesies that a total of from eighty thousand to ninety thousand men will be put *hors de combat*; that is to say, that from twenty thousand to twenty-five thousand will be killed, and the rest incapacitated from wounds or disease.

The Yellow Peril and the White Peril.—A rather hysterical article, calling upon Europe to unite for protection against the "yellow peril," of Asia and the "white peril" of America, appears in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels). The author, Paul Decker, can find no comfort in the situation in the far East. The world is bound to lose, whichever wins, he says. If Russia be victorious, we will see the preponderance of absolutism and a reign of force; if Russia be defeated, we must submit to the ambition of Japan, which will be supplemented, on the other side of the Pacific, by the supremacy of America, "united and developed by its natural strength, and organized for the final struggle with Europe."

SCIENCE IN THE FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

Science and Marriage.—Dr. Cazalis, one of the best known of French physicians, who is also a close student of social questions, has sent a communication to the Academy of Medicine of France demanding that it make public "clear, simple, precise instructions" for the benefit of the French people on the subject of the necessary qualifications for proper and happy marriage. These instructions, according to the account given in the *Revue Universelle*, should pay special attention to the dangers from alcoholism, syphilis, and

tuberculosis. These instructions, Dr. Cazalis believes, should be printed on every marriage certificate and on every soldier's enlistment paper. The Academy of Medicine has appointed a commission to study the matter thoroughly and to present a report.

Automobiles in Madagascar.—It has been demonstrated by the French colonial government in Madagascar that the automobile may be made of inestimable benefit in new countries for the transportation of bag-

gage and mail. Several years ago, General Galliène, conqueror and now governor-general of Madagascar, established an automobile service for the transportation of mail between Mahatsara and Tananarivo, the capital. Despite enormous difficulties due to climate and the wildness of the country, and difficulties of installation which are almost incredible, the service has proved a complete success. According to the *Official Journal of Madagascar*, the service has now been running with absolute regularity for the past seven months (the report is dated January 1, 1904). In the carrying of the mail during the seven months, the automobiles covered a distance of 46,000 kilometers, transporting 106 tons of mail, in addition to 185 passengers and seven tons of baggage. The cost of maintaining the service amounts, approximately, to \$18,000 annually.

Coal on the Trans-Siberian Railroad.—The recent discovery of important coal deposits in both European and Asiatic Russia, says *Nature* (Paris), has permitted the substitution of coal for wood on the locomotives of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. At present, on that portion of the line from Tchiliabinsk to Irkutsk, coal is burned. The transportation of coal, however, from the deposits is still necessary for a great distance from the fuel beds.

The Sanitation of a Continent.—A writer in the *Revue de Paris* considers the history of concerted action on the part of the governments of Europe for the sanitary protection of the continent. Already, he says, the "Sanitary Defense of Europe," organized by physicians and diplomats, has succeeded in accomplishing two great sanitary reforms,—the "disinfection" of the pilgrimages to Mecca and the protection of the Persian Gulf from the plague. This system of sanitary protection had three stages in its development: in 1892, Europe fought the cholera in France; in 1893, it made arrangements for complete disinfection in case the plague should penetrate to Europe; in 1894, at Paris, the plague was attacked in its very origin. The Ottoman Empire, he concludes, has always resisted the just demands of Europe for sanitary protection.

The Use of Small Water-Courses in France.—The French minister of agriculture is addressing to all the prefects throughout the republic a circular of information and suggestion which will enable the small farmers to make use of the power in their small waterfalls. The circular describes the method by which these small waterfalls may be harnessed to simple and inexpensive but effective electric apparatus (the entire relation between canals, turbines, dynamos, and the distribution problem is described), and the cost of installation is given. It is hoped that small farmers can thus, at a small cost, have their own lighting plant and conduct many of their farm operations more effectively and at a lower cost than heretofore. The *Revue Universelle* discusses this subject at length.

Collective Psychology.—The Dutch review, *De Gids* (Amsterdam), has an exhaustive article on "Collective Psychology,"—that is, the psychology of groups of persons, whether small (as exemplified by a dozen men in a jury box) or large enough to be termed a crowd. The writer distinguishes between the groups, dividing them into castes, classes, associations, and so

forth. In the homogeneous groups, such as castes and political associations, there is a predominating cause for particular expressions of feeling, and there is also a sense of responsibility; whereas in the heterogeneous groups (e.g., the ordinary crowd), the manifestations of sentiment are produced by any cause, and the individuals often follow a lead without being conscious of it. In this latter case of the crowd, there is usually no feeling of responsibility: if there is to be any punishment, or reward, it cannot be allocated to any body as a whole, but must be meted out to some of the heterogeneous elements who may be recognized or arrested among the crowd. Such an article as this shows how prone we are to follow one another like sheep, and how few really strong minds we have among us. Once in a crowd, for instance, we can scarcely prevent ourselves from doing as the rest do, and those who keep cool are the exceptions.

The Story of a Pearl.—In the *Zoblogist* for February, Professor McIntosh contributes an article covering not only the life-history of a pearl, but also treating of the methods of collection. Pearls are found in many shellfish, both lamellibranchs and gasteropods, but the vast majority of valuable specimens are taken from the so-called pearl oyster, which is collected in various parts of the Indian Ocean. It is found as far east as Japan, and has increased in the Mediterranean since the building of the Suez Canal. Pearl fisheries are also carried on in the Gulf of Mexico, at Panama, and in California. In fresh waters, the mussels produce large numbers of pearls. It is now believed that pearls are due to the presence of a minute parasite—one of the flukeworms—which, in the mature condition, in the case of the British pearls, lives in the intestines of the eider duck and the scoter. The eggs from these mature worms are carried into the mouth of a common shellfish, pass into the alimentary canal, and through the circulatory system reach the blood-vessels of the mantle. There they become encysted, and divide into another generation known as *cercariæ*. The *cercariæ* escape, and find their way into the mussels between the mantle and the shell. After coming to rest, they form the center about which the pearl is secreted. The work of Professor Herdman shows that the pearls of the Ceylonese oysters are formed by a similar worm. The adult of this worm is an elasmobranch fish, and the late larval stages are in a filefish, which eats pearl oysters. A similar parasite has been found in the case of the pearl-forming oysters in the region of the Gambia. The question is raised whether shellfish may not be infected artificially with the parasites, and thus pearl-formation be stimulated.

The Sleeping Sickness.—The "sleeping sickness" is treated in *La Science au XXth Siècle*. This disease is confined to the west coast of tropical Africa. Various theories of its cause have been advanced, but it is now known that it is produced by a blood parasite,—a trypanosome. This is conveyed to the human body by the bite of a fly. The disease attacks all nationalities and all ages, and while the patient may live for some months, or even two years, seems to be almost invariably fatal in its results. Remedies have had very little effect. There is hope that a serum may be prepared which will be effective, but, so far, experiments to this end have not been successful.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Herbert Spencer's autobiography is one of the books for which the world has been rather curiously waiting; but, now that the world has it, reader and critic alike must confess to being somewhat disappointed. The autobiography contains a great amount of very valuable material, but no good literature. Moreover, this material is dull, and rather incoherently handled. As a biography, it is candid and conscientious; but no one lives in it, least of all the subject. He makes out his life to be just what his great passion impressed on all his philosophy,—a generalization. In his own preface, written in 1894, the philosopher observes: "In the genesis of a system of thought, the emotional nature is



HERBERT SPENCER.

a large factor,—perhaps as large a factor as the intellectual nature." And yet there is very little of the emotional, or even of the human, about this natural history of the great philosopher. Mr. Spencer explains that he never had any instruction in English, and begs indulgence on this account. Many other unkindnesses of nature and circumstances had to be—and were—overcome by this giant mind. He tells of how he had to use morphia to gain a few hours' sleep—even under the balmy skies of Italy. There are bits of conceit,—rather unlovely,—which crop out here and there, showing that the philosopher took himself quite seriously. He discusses his abandonment of Christianity at the age of eighteen quite calmly, but, in the last chapter of the book, written four years later than the bulk of it, he shows the mellowing influence of time and the approach of old age. The truth or falsity of any particular religious doctrine, he admits, is not the main question,—that men's conduct must be controlled by some theological belief and priestly authority, that Christianity has not altogether failed, and that if we dissent from the solutions offered by religion we must join in the wish that solutions could be found. Among the most interesting features of the two volumes, "An Autobiography by Herbert Spencer" (Appletons), are the estimates of distinguished contemporaries. Carlyle's nature was chaotic, intellectually and morally; Buckle was mentally top-heavy, and so on. Of his own early career, Mr. Spencer writes frankly and fully. His work as an engineer and afterward as a journalist he characterizes as a false start, but he admits the value of the training he received from both experiences. The volumes are well printed, and contain several portraits of the Spencer family.

The two-volume "Life of John A. Andrew," the famous war governor of Massachusetts, has been written by Henry Greenleaf Pearson (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Governor Andrew was the central figure of so many dramatic scenes before and during the Civil War that his career remains to this day a national possession, although a generation has passed since his official work was completed. Outside of Massachusetts, Governor Andrew is remembered for his connection with the John Brown episode, for his later contest with General Butler, and for the part that he so nobly sustained in equipping Massachusetts regiments for action at the outbreak of the War.



GOVERNOR ANDREW.

"The Life of Frederick William Farrar," by his son, Reginald A. Farrar (Crowell), must be counted as one of the notable biographies of the year. In writing Dean Farrar's life, his son has been aided by friends and colleagues of the dean, who have contributed reminiscences of those periods during which they were closely associated with him. The dean's own book, "Men I Have Known," conveys some idea of his large circle of acquaintance, and his office as chaplain to the Queen made him one of the most conspicuous pulpit figures of the last generation in England.



THE LATE DEAN FARRAR.

SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS, AND POLITICS.

Prof. N. S. Shaler's new book, "The Neighbor" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a study of human relations, with special reference to race prejudice. It is interesting to have the opinion of Professor Shaler, who is a native Kentuckian and a veteran of the Civil War, on the question of negro suffrage. Professor Shaler declares that any system which makes the limitation of the suffrage depend on race would be in the highest degree destructive to our institutions. While he is in favor of the changes in the constitutions of the Southern States which have limited the franchise by educational or property qualifications, he regards the purpose of dis-

franchising the ignorant negroes, while leaving the equally ignorant whites in possession of the suffrage, as "so far a restoration of the tribal system which it has been the task of our commonwealth to overthrow." Professor Shaler characterizes the "grandfather clause" as a miserable subterfuge, and expresses his shame that such a device should have been invented by Americans.

The Rev. Nicholas Paine Gilman, author of works on profit-sharing and other economic themes, has written



REV. N. P. GILMAN.

a more comprehensive treatise than has heretofore appeared in English on "Methods of Industrial Peace" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In this work, the whole subject of labor unions, as well as employers' associations, conciliation in labor disputes, boards of conciliation and arbitration, and the less familiar principle of "collective bargaining" and the trade agreement, are discussed at length.

There is a separate chapter on the incorporation of industrial unions, and some of the results of the investigation carried on by the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission are here set forth. The volume as a whole digests the most important information presented in recent official reports and in other authoritative publications.

Treatises dealing with our lately acquired dependencies from the standpoint of jurisprudence are by no means numerous. The work in this field of such scholars as Dr. Leo S. Rowe is worthy of every possible encouragement. We are glad to note that Dr. Rowe's studies as a member of the Commission to Revise and Compile the Laws of Porto Rico, and as chairman of the Porto Rican Commission, have resulted in a book,—"The United States and Porto Rico" (Longmans),—which cannot fail to prove of great value to all who have occasion to inform themselves concerning the Spanish colonial legal system as modified since the American occupation of the island. Dr. Rowe has also included in his book a very useful discussion of those problems in civil government which confronted the American administration from the first. The reader will gain from the work a broader conception and a fuller appreciation of the ability displayed by the representatives of the Washington Government in approaching these new and extremely difficult problems.

The papers and proceedings of the last annual meeting of the American Economic Association are published in two parts, the first part containing, in addition to Professor Seligman's presidential address on "Some Aspects of Economic Law" and President Alderman's address of welcome, papers on "Sugar," "Rice," "Cotton," "Tobacco," and "The Utilization of Southern Wastes," together with a valuable discussion of "The Relation Between Rent and Interest." In the second part are contained the papers and discussions on "State and Corporate Finance," "The Trust Problem," and "Sociology and History."

The latest volume in the "American Commonwealths"

series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is Mr. Frank B. Sanborn's "New Hampshire." Mr. Sanborn writes with appreciation of the colony where his oldest English ancestors cast in their lot, more than two hundred and sixty years ago, and where all his latest ancestors have been born. In his account of the early colonial conflicts with aristocratic types of government, Mr. Sanborn has been able to make use of important English documents discovered within the past half-century.

The publishers of John Graham Brooks' remarkable and valuable work, "The Social Unrest" (Macmillan), have just brought out a paper-bound edition. "The Social Unrest," which has already been reviewed in these pages, is a work which is more than readable. It ought to be read.

Some years ago, Dan Beard's "Moonlight and Six Feet of Romance" appeared. It proved popular, but the firm which published it failed, and the first edition was withdrawn from sale. The trend of events in American politics and economics, however, have made a new edition possible (Albert Brande, Trenton, N. J.). To this new edition of this well-told story of a man who "sees things as they really are" Louis F. Post, editor of the *Public*, has written a strong introduction. There is a wall, says Mr. Beard, in his "foreword," called Vested Rights, "which prevents nature's sun from shining on our fellow-men; but, thank God! good workmen are busy at its foundation; it is already undermined, and must fall." The illustrations to the new edition are strikingly appropriate.

EUROPE AND ASIA—ESPECIALLY JAPAN.

Much more than ice-free ports in the Pacific and the domination of Korea is involved in the present war between Japan and Russia. The opening years of the new century are witnessing one more of the periodical attempts of the white races to conquer, or at least to dominate, the vast Asiatic continent. Alexander of Macedon, the leaders of the Roman Republic and Empire, the Crusaders, all made great invasions of Asia,—and all failed. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Russia and England began to stir in the old direction. Impelled by some unexplained impulse, these two Occidental peoples seized the vast mysterious north and the almost equally vast and more mysterious south of the oldest continent. To-day, a greater movement on the far East has begun, now, however, with a clear and conscious motive. Mr. Meredith Townsend, in his fascinating book "Asia and Europe" (Putnam's), states this motive.

"The European peoples are tired of the poverty in which, despite their considerable advance in civilization and their immense advance in applied science, their masses are still condemned to live. The white races, in obedience to some law of which they know nothing, increase with amazing rapidity; and in Europe, which is not a very fertile continent, there is not enough work to go around. There is uneasiness everywhere, suffering in all cities, strange outbursts of envy and malice against the rich in all countries except Great Britain. The rulers reign in constant dread of explosions from below, the subjects are penetrated with the idea that agriculture is played out, and that the 'money' which is the foundation of comfort can only come from a vast development of trade. Both are told by their experts that great markets can only be found in Asia, where the majority of the human race has elected to dwell, and where it has aggregated itself into masses so great that commerce with them must always produce a maximum of profit."

But, though the West may reduce the East to tempo-

rary vassalage of a commercial nature, there are inherent differences between Europe and Asia which forbid one of these continents to conquer the other permanently. The whole method of life, and all the systems of thought, are different. This difference is strongly emphasized in Mr. Townsend's book, and somehow, when the reader has laid it down, he has a higher opinion of Asiatics, an increased respect for those wonderfully old and wonderfully wise peoples who refuse to measure up to almost all of our Occidental standards, and yet, "if it be the end of systems of life to produce contented acquiescence, the Asiatic systems must be held to have succeeded."

A scholarly and thought-provoking essay is "The Political Ideas of Modern Japan," by Karl Kiyoshi Kawakami, which has been recently brought out in book form by the establishment of Shokwabo, in Tokio. It was originally prepared as a "degree thesis" for the State University of Iowa, but its author, Mr. Kawakami, gives us an excellent, clear account of the development of Japan, politically and economically, out of feudalism into modern life. Especially interesting are his chapters on the origin of the Japanese people and their national characteristics.

In his book "Japan To-Day" (Lippincott), Dr. James A. B. Scherer has aimed to give a kaleidoscopic view of modern Japan. "The empire of the Mikado is so notoriously complex that I purposely give a diversified appearance, and leave the reader to unify the subject if he can. I offer a sketch-book of views of one of the most interesting countries of the world." "Japan is the key to the Orient, but no one has ever found the key to Japan." Dr. Scherer has lived for many years in Japan, and was formerly teacher of English in the government school at Saga. He speaks Japanese, and his work is built up from original sources. It closes with a chapter entitled "The Gates of Asia; or, The Larger Meaning of the War."

A volume which claims to "answer more questions about Japan than any other book yet published" has been compiled by Esther Singleton, under the general title of "Japan, Described by Great Writers" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It comprises reprints of accounts in English and translations, and the whole field of description and history is covered in studies by such well-known writers as Sir Edwin Arnold, Pierre Loti, Lafcadio Hearn, Arthur Diósy, Elisée Réclus, Yoshitaro Yamashita, Judith Gautier, Isabella Bird Bishop, and Mortimer Mompes. The book is pleasantly illustrated.

HISTORIES AND MANUALS OF ARCHITECTURE.

A review of domestic architecture from Colonial days to the present has been prepared by Joy Wheeler Dow, under the title "American Renaissance" (William T. Comstock). The author believes that "the best that we have been able to say for ourselves up to the present is that we have always had a sneaking kind of regard for art, and that, when business did not interfere, we have endeavored, after a desultory fashion, to cultivate it." He has the courage of his convictions, for he begins Chapter I. with "The magnificence of the subject." He believes that there is a great future for American architecture, and endeavors, in this volume, to show how much has gradually taken on an originality, which is distinct from the impress of what has survived from past building epochs. The volume is illustrated by ninety half-tone prints. Most of the text originally appeared in the *Architects and Builders'*

Magazine. It is gratifying to realize that, little as we have of great art in building, we really have so much.

A guide-book in architecture which aims to "help the reader acquire, little by little, such an independent knowledge of the essential characteristics of good buildings that he will always enjoy the sight, the memory, or the study of a noble structure without undue anxiety as to whether he is right or wrong" is "How to Judge Architecture" (Baker & Taylor), by Russell Sturgis, whose connection with the leading architectural associations and experiences in public art have made him an acknowledged critic. Mr. Sturgis sets up no absolute standards, but gives reasons in accordance with which the reader may form his own opinions. Plentiful illustrations from early Greek temples and from the great cathedrals of the Middle Ages, supplemented by modern business buildings, emphasize Mr. Sturgis' historical and explanatory outline of architectural history.

A very useful book for the student in classic art is the "Cyclopedia of Works of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant" (Scribners), edited by William P. P. Longfellow, late Fellow of the Institute of Architects. This volume seems to be very full and accurate. Architectural interest first, and historical, second, were the tests in its preparation. Historical controversies have been avoided. The orthography of the classical names has been simplified as far as possible, and the illustrations are unusually good.

The third edition of a useful little manual entitled "Easy Lessons, or Stepping-Stones to Architecture," has been issued by the Industrial Publication Company. Thomas Mitchell, the English compiler, characterizes the book as "a series of questions and answers explaining in simple language the principles and progress of architecture from the earliest times." Useful diagrams and pictures accompany the text.

RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL WORKS.

Dr. A. Lincoln Shute's book, "The Fatherhood of God" (Eaton & Mains), is "the outgrowth of a profound conviction that some one, without further delay, ought to place within reach of the Church universal a full, plain, warm-hearted, logical, scriptural, and evangelically Christian presentation of the glorious doctrine of the Fatherhood of God." Dr. Shute's work is pervaded by a spirit of earnest piety.

In "Man and the Divine Order" (Putnam's), Mr. Horatio W. Dresser, author of "The Power of Silence" and "Living by the Spirit," attempts to suggest new thoughts on the relation of man to the universe. The underlying thought of his book he aims to make "constructive idealism."

Dr. S. D. McConnell, rector of All Souls' Church, New York, believes that the many differing conceptions of the Christ held by denominations, and by individuals in the same denomination, not only confuse the religious thought, but result in a wavering conviction as to the definite personality of the Saviour. The Christ of the Eastern Church, he says in his book "Christ" (Macmillan), is not the Christ of the West; the Christ of the Roman mass is not the Christ of the Salvation Army; the Christ of theology is not the Christ of the average pulpit, and none of these is the Christ of poetry, art, and popular thought. Can we find the real Christ? It may be admitted that if Dr. McConnell does not present a positive image, he clarifies our conception by making

us willing to give up some of our beautiful but impossible ideals.

It is a very apt characterization of Jonathan Edwards which Dr. Isaac Crook gives in his little biography: "Jonathan Edwards may seem a man of yesterday, but, both in life and character, he is a man of to-day and all the to-morrows." Dr. Crook's little booklet (Jennings & Pye) is a welcome message from one of the greatest periods of American thought. Jonathan Edwards had other sides than the "hellfire" one, and this biographer has shown them.

Not to demonstrate any truth, but to give expression to a "living, inspiring, dominating faith," which shall show that God is still "the Great Companion" of the human race, Dr. Lyman Abbott has written a connected series of sermon-essays under the title "The Great Companion" (The Outlook Company). They are helpful and thought-nourishing, and are in Dr. Abbott's usual lucid style.

To show that for the past two thousand years "the voice of the Christian preacher has never ceased to be a power in the world" is the purpose of T. Harwood Pattison in his "History of Christian Preaching" (American Baptist Publication Society). The volume is illustrated by twenty portraits of famous preachers, from Martin Luther to Dwight L. Moody. Mr. Pattison is professor of homiletics in the Rochester Theological Seminary. He wields a facile and eloquent pen.

An attempt to outline the "Doctrine of the Church" in the brief space of one hundred and fifteen pages is made by Dr. Revere Franklin Weidner (Revell). The notes are based on the systems of Luthardt and Krauth, and are, of course, only suggestive. Dr. Weidner is professor of theology in the Chicago Lutheran Theological Seminary, and is the author of many works on ecclesiology.

"The Things Which Remain," is the title of an address to young ministers by Bishop Daniel A. Goodsell, of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye). The author discusses the question "How much Christian doctrine will still remain, though much of the most radical criticism be accepted?"

Twenty character studies of "Typical Elders and Deacons" (Funk & Wagnalls) are presented by Dr. James M. Campbell (Hamish Mann). The typical deacon of the modern novel, he says, "is a man of small caliber, something of a sneak, very much of a hypocrite. Of manly, noble, qualities he is utterly destitute." It is to repudiate this "wicked, senseless caricature of an honorable class of men" that these sketches have been written. It is certainly to be hoped that all deacons are (or will hereafter be) up to the standard portrayed by Dr. Campbell.

"The Spark in the Clod" (American Unitarian Association), by Jabez T. Sunderland, is an attempt to answer the questions "Is the doctrine of evolution true? Is it hostile to religion? Does it compel changes in religious belief? If so, what are some of the more important of those changes?" The answers are from a religious, particularly a Unitarian, standpoint.

"The Christian Conversationalist" (Baptist Publication Society) is a collection of helps to a clear understanding of the Christian doctrine, cast in the form of questions and answers, with many references to biblical passages. It has been compiled by Rufus Washington Weaver, Th.D.

Dr. I. K. Funk, editor of the Standard Dictionary, has written a brief study of the probability, signifi-

cance, and character of a second coming of Christ, under the title "The Next Step in Evolution" (Funk & Wagnalls). The study originally appeared as an introduction to a revival of George Croly's novel, "Salathiel," rechristened "Tarry, Thou, Till I Come." Dr. Funk believes that Christ comes the second time "into men's

vision by lifting them up into his plane of spiritual comprehension," just as he came the first time into men's vision "by coming on the plane of their senses."

An unknown Italian writer in the fourteenth century penned the "Life of Saint Mary Magdalen." This work has been translated by Valentina Hawtry (John Lane), and Vernon Lee has written a sympathetic



DR. I. K. FUNK.

introduction to the English edition, which is illustrated with reproductions of the Magdalen as conceived by the great masters of painting. The story is one of the Italian devotional romances of the Middle Ages, dealing with the relations of Jesus with the family of Lazarus, whose sister Mary is here identified with the Magdalen. Except for the account of the Passion which forms the nucleus, the story is, says Vernon Lee, "a perfect tissue of inventions. Indeed, the novelist explains very simply that he is narrating, not how he knows of a certainty that things did happen, but how it pleases him to think that they might have happened." The style is exquisite.

"The Higher Realism" (Jennings & Pye), by Duston Kemble, is an elaboration of some rather original conceptions in philosophy by the author. His conclusion is that there are three stages of intellect,—(1) naïveté, giving rise to myth and poetry; (2) materialism, which cultivates industry, politics, art, and science; and (3) spiritual faith, in which the soul "sees the moral, the eternal, and the divine as realities closely and constantly related to our human life."

A helpful, simply written essay on the development of a normal mind "From Agnosticism to Theism" (James H. West Company) is the latest effort of Rev. Charles F. Dole, author of "The Theology of Civilization and 'The Religion of a Gentleman.'" He holds no brief for theism, but tells how he came to accept it. The parable at the end of the little essay is charming and convincing.

A systematic statement of theological tenets is contained in the little "Handbook of Christian Doctrine," by Henry C. Graves, D.D. (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), which is based upon the larger "Manual of Christian Theology," by Alvah Hovey, D.D. The work is adapted to class-room use.

Prof. Edward Caldwell Moore (theology, Harvard) has gathered his Lowell Lectures on the relation of the New Testament Canon and the Christian Church into a volume under the title "The New Testament in the Christian Church" (Macmillan). In these lectures, he aims to give the results of the labors of theological scholars during the past fifteen years in the study of the New Testament Canon, comparing the development

of the Canon, the organization of the Church for government, and the Rule of Faith. The volume takes a place in the list of theological works worth doing. Professor Moore treats his subject in the calm, judicious way of the scholar reading history.

"The Messages of the Psalmists" (Scribners) is an arrangement of the Psalms in their natural grouping, freely rendered in paraphrase, by Prof. John E. McFadyen, of Knox College, Toronto. Comparatively slight attention is given to critical discussions, since an appreciation of the grandeur and beauty of the Psalms is possible without a minute knowledge of the critical problems involved, but the methods employed in the compilation are scholarly throughout.

An idiomatic translation into every-day English from the original new Greek Testament has been made by Dr. Richard Francis Weymouth and published (Baker & Taylor) under the title "The Modern Speech New Testament." In his preface, Dr. Weymouth declares that his work is in no sense a revision, but is a *bona fide* translation from the resultant Greek Testament, and that, while it is not his ambition to supplant the versions in general use, he hopes that this translation will contribute "some materials that may yet be built into the far grander edifice of a new and satisfactory English Bible."

A little book entitled "God's Living Oracle" (The Baker & Taylor Company) contains the Exeter Hall lectures on the Bible delivered last year in London by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, D.D. The author's point of view as an orthodox defender of the Scriptures is well known.

In "The Temples of the Orient and Their Message" (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company) we have a well-informed summary of what has been made known by recent investigations concerning the rites of pre-Christian forms of theistic worship. The book is especially rich in the lore of ancient Nippur, the earliest identified seat of religious worship in the world.

"The Beauty of Wisdom" is the title of a compilation of daily readings made by the Rev. James De Normandie (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). These readings are intended for the use of individuals, families, and schools, and are selected from the Bible, Plato, Euripides, Confucius, Xenophon, Cicero, Montaigne, and various other classics. One distinctive purpose, on the part of the compiler, has been "to revive, if possible, some form of family service, grown often so formal, so undevout, or, more commonly, entirely given up."



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DR. CHARLES A. BRIGGS.

In his "New Light on the Life of Jesus" (Scribners), Prof. Charles A. Briggs sets forth the results of his latest studies of the New Testament. Most of the questions discussed in this volume center in the order of Christ's ministry and of associated events. The methods employed in the investigation are, of course, those of the "higher criticism."

Two discourses by Dr. Emil G. Hirsch,—"The Jews and Jesus"

and "Jesus: His Life and Times" (Chicago: The Reform Advocate),—are notable as indicating a point of view not commonly supposed to be held by adherents of the Jewish faith. Rabbi Hirsch indignantly rejects the imputation of hostility to Christianity so freely made by Christian writers in treating of the Jewish attitude toward Jesus. He goes so far as to claim for Judaism virtually all the teachings of Christianity, depicting Jesus himself as a typical Hebrew teacher and prophet of his time.

One of the foremost representatives of German orthodoxy at the present moment is Dr. Hermann Cremer, of Greifswald University. His lectures given before the students of that institution in the summer of 1901, in reply to Professor Harnack, the distinguished representative of the "higher criticism," have been translated into English by Dr. Bernhard Piek, and are now presented in a volume entitled "A Reply to Harnack on the Essence of Christianity" (Funk & Wagnalls Company). Dr. Cremer's distinctive contention is that the essence of Christian truth is to be found, not alone in the teachings of Jesus as given in the four Gospels, but in the writings of the evangelists and apostles which record their various impressions of Jesus and his work.

Dr. Leonard Woolsey Bacon's little volume on "The Congregationalists," in "The Story of the Churches" series (The Baker & Taylor Company), is a model that might well be followed by church historians generally, but we fear that this is too much to expect. We have here the record of what Congregationalism has contributed to the religious life of the American people, and of what the denomination, numerically small though it be, has accomplished for education and for home and foreign missions. Even the casual reader of this impressive history will gather from it some conception of what the Congregationalism of to-day stands for in our national life, and "the average church member," for whose benefit the book was written, will assuredly be the gainer in knowledge, and hence in the intelligent appreciation of the service that this branch of the Christian Church is rendering in the world. The whole story occupies less than two hundred and seventy-five small pages, told in the pungent style for which Dr. Bacon's writings are distinguished.

"The Genius of Methodism," by William Pitt MacVey (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye), is an attempt to expound and interpret the underlying principles of the great Methodist movement. The book is less a recital of facts than a discussion of the intellectual and moral forces that were behind the facts, and from which the growth of Methodism derives its true significance.

"Pilgrimages to Methodist Shrines" (Jennings & Pye) is a series of sketches by William Henry Meredith, "not a book-maker, but a Methodist preacher and pastor who loves his Church and is intensely interested in its history." Such chapter titles as the following will



DR. LEONARD W. BACON.

give an idea of the contents of the book: "Tracking the Forerunner of Methodism," "John Wesley's First Methodist Circuit," "The Bridal Home of Charles Wesley," "John Wesley and the Dude," "The Oldest Methodist Church in America."

In a volume of "Essays for the Day" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Dr. Theodore T. Munger, for many years pastor of the United Church on the Green at New Haven, gathers some discussions of religion and literature, several of which have appeared in magazines during the past few years. The introductory paper, perhaps the most important of those contained in this volume, is entitled "The Church: Some Immediate Questions." This paper appeared in a recent number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. This is followed by an essay on "The Interplay of Christianity and Literature." There is also a study of Horace Bushnell, a commentary on "The Scarlet Letter," and "A Layman's Reflections on Music."

Several new books have appeared on the moral teaching of Shakespearean plays. Richard G. Moulton, professor of literature in English in the University of Chicago, who has revealed



PROF. R. G. MOULTON.

the Bible to so many who never knew of its literary and philosophic beauty in his latest book, "The Moral System of Shakespeare" (Macmillan), has endeavored to make a text-book of Shakespeare, for students of literary clubs or scholastic institutions which shall set forth a point of view something like this: Besides the interest and amusement in the plays of Shakespeare, there is also a great philosophical interest, somewhat analogous to that of experiments in physical science. He endeavors to make this book "a popular illustration of fiction as the experimental side of philosophy." He presents the more popular terms to illustrate such root ideas as Heroism and Moral Balance, Wrong and Retribution, and others. His chapters have such suggestive headings as "The Moral Significance of Humor," "Shakespeare's World in Its Moral Complexity," and "Comedy as Life in Equilibrium." It is doubtful whether he adds anything to what has already been written on the philosophy of the "Immortal William," but he certainly presents a compact, a thought-provoking, and an illuminating summary.

Dr. Frank Chapman Sharp comes at the subject from a slightly different angle in "Shakespeare's Portrayal of the Moral Life" (Scribners). Dr. Sharp, who is assistant professor of philosophy in the University of Wisconsin, is the philosopher as truly as Dr. Moulton

is the man of letters. His book, he says, is "an attempt to lay before the reader the results of the observations of a man who was one of the most gifted students of human nature the world over." Dr. Sharp believes that Shakespeare's powers, at their best, must be sought for in the works of the third and fourth periods, according to the common classification. The most material for investigation, however, is found in the four great tragedies, the Roman and Greek histories, and in a few of the romances and the so-called comedies, like "All's Well That Ends Well" and "Measure for Measure."

A NEW NOVEL AND A NEW EDITION.

A very charming book, both in subject matter and treatment, is "Fat of the Land" (Macmillan), by John Williams Streeter. This story of an American farm is full of quaint, straightforward, practical philosophy, based on the actual experiences of the author, a genial Chicago physician, in carrying out his great dream, "to own and work land." He declares he is not imaginative, could not write a romance if he tried, and does not claim to have spent his sixty thousand dollars without making some serious mistakes. But there is much poetry in the facts of his practical experience, in the homely realities of his actual contact with the soil, and the reader is quite ready to concede his claim that, despite his mistakes, he has solved the problem and proved that an intelligent farmer can live in luxury on the fat of the land."

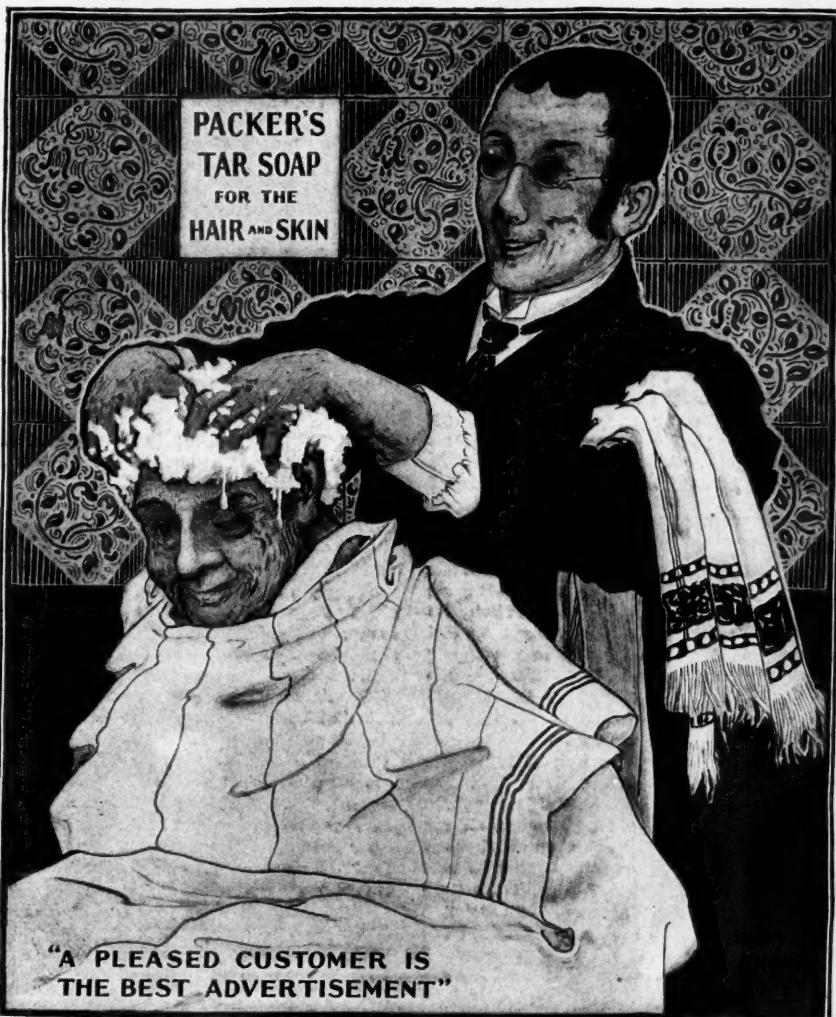
A very handsome edition of Charles Kingsley's complete works, with an introduction by Maurice Kingsley, comes from the press of J. F. Taylor & Co. Kingsley ought to be read more. There is something nourishing in his style and helpful morally in the broad strokes with which he paints social and moral progress in the middle of the last century.

THE CARTOONS OF A CENTURY.

An exceedingly interesting and illuminating collection of cartoons has been compiled by Arthur Bartlett Maurice and Frederic Taber Cooper, under the title "The History of the Nineteenth Century in Caricature" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). There are few aids to the correct reading of history equal to a cartoon collection arranged by subject for the period under consideration. This volume is profusely illustrated, and the cartoons presented are arranged under the following general heads: "The Napoleonic Era," "From Waterloo through the Crimean War," "The Civil and the Franco-Prussian Wars," and "The End of the Century." Most of the representative cartoon artists, from Hogarth to Oppen, Davenport, Nast, and Tenniel, are sketched sympathetically, and famous specimens of their work are presented. Modern French and German cartoonists are also considered. There has never been a time in the whole history of comic art, the authors say, when caricature has held such sway and maintained such dignity, and has enlisted in her service so many workers of the first talent and rank.



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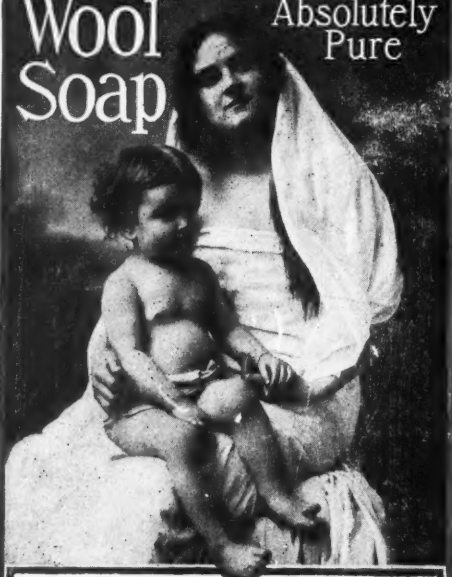
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